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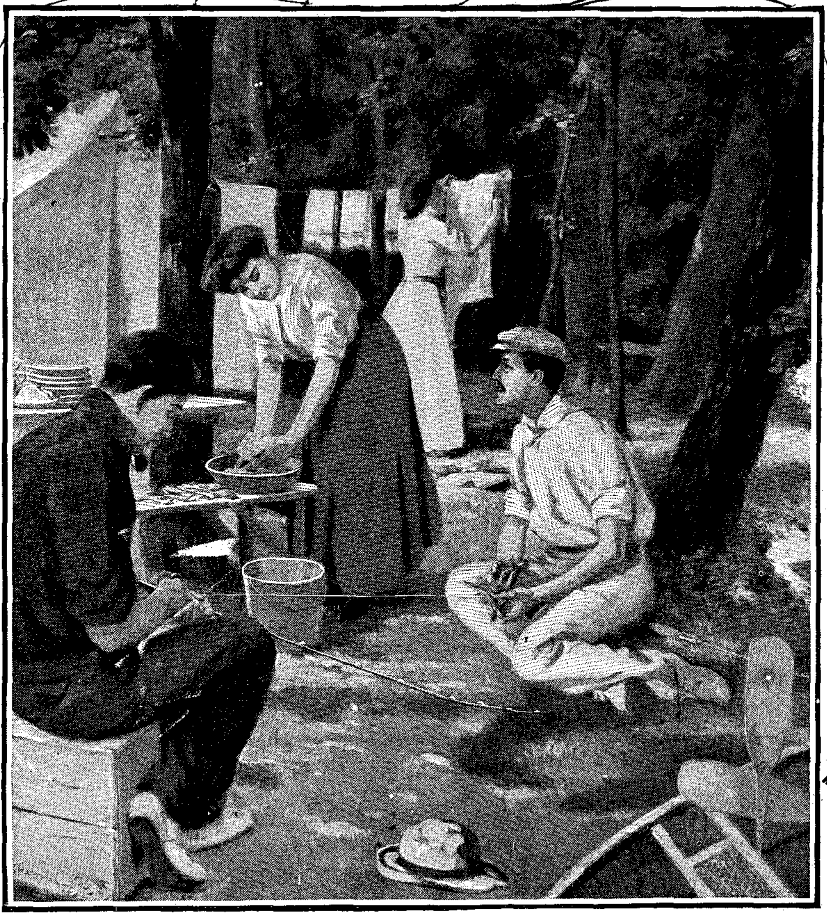

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"Who is Going to Wash the Dishes?"

There is the rock that has wrecked many a camping party—the three-times-a-day argument as to whose turn it is to "do" the dishes.

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Ivory is the ideal soap for the bath, for the toilet, for fine laundry purposes *and for washing dishes.*

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The moral is as plain as a pikestaff: When you go camping, take an abundant supply of Ivory Soap with you. Wash with it, bathe with it, "do" the dishes with it.

Ivory Soap . . . . It Floats.

The Outlook

JULY 24, 1909

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LAWRENCE F. ABBOTT, PRESIDENT. WILLIAM B. HOWLAND, TREASURER. KARL V. S. HOWLAND, SECRETARY
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ARE HIGH PROTECTIONISTS SLAVE-OWNERS?

A very entertaining and suggestive contribution to the tariff discussion has been made by the venerable John Bigelow in a letter to the Tariff Reform Committee of the New York Reform Club, which has just been made public. Although Mr. Bigelow is ninety-two years old, he still writes in the vigorous and incisive English which is characteristic of all his work as one of this country's distinguished men of letters. Mr. Bigelow has an intimate knowledge of American politics as a lawyer, as a publicist, and as a statesman. For twelve years, from 1849 to 1861, he was American Consul in Paris, and from 1864 to 1867 he was Minister to France. From 1875 to 1877 he was Secretary of State of the State of New York. It will not do, therefore, to reply to his criticisms of the protective policy by saying that he is a "doctrinaire," a favorite epithet of those who are high protectionists from pocketbook motives. Mr. Bigelow's view of the present tariff discussion in Congress is expressed in the following pungent words:

> Your hope of a revision downwards is an idle dream. . . . To expect a reduction of the tariff in this country is to expect a dipsomaniac to clamor for water instead of whisky. . . . Hamilton felt it necessary to apologize to the nation for proposing a tariff of 7½ per cent on a few articles, a list of which did not occupy the whole of one side of a letter-sheet. That was in 1792. More than a century has elapsed and yet our tariff has constantly increased, until now half of our revenue is collected from our imports alone. . . . That half is taken for the most part directly from the producing class, which it impoverishes to enrich the protected, who may properly be called our slave-owners. . . . We have before us in the tariff precisely the same issue that confronted us in the rebellion of 1861. The Southern planter wanted slave labor for its cheapness. . . . The result was that we had . . . to get rid of the unrighteous three-fifths protection which the Constitution had given to the slave-holding planters, by a long and bloody war. To me it appears that Protection is even more firmly fixed in its saddle than ever slavery was, because the property it gives to the protected every year exceeds the total value of the slave property of the United States when it was at its maximum. . . . What motive had the Southern planter to go to war for the protection of slavery that the Republican party has not a far greater, to fight for Protection? Your circular speaks of the convergence of Republicans to Free Trade, but it says nothing of their faculty for debauching Democrats. . . . The Protectionists will cheerfully support any measure, however abominable, to secure enough Democratic votes to maintain or increase the tariff. For these reasons I am not sure that we can hope for any better result from this extra session of Congress than that Payne and Aldrich may have their way without any successful obstruction, and may give us as monstrous a tariff bill as they are capable of inditing. . . . All appeals for a revision and a reduction of the tariff are like appeals to inebriates not to drink to excess. . . . When your Reform Committee is prepared to take a firm stand against any tariff upon imports, to make every harbor on our six hundred miles of seacoast as free to the commerce of the world as those of New York are to those of New Jersey, or those of Pennsylvania are to those of Virginia, I shall be happy to join you and do what I can to promote the success of your labors. In such a work I should have the satisfaction of knowing that I was not even indirectly countenancing a vicious system of taxation.

Mr. Bigelow's appeal for a trade in foreign commerce as free as the trade in inter-State commerce ignores, we think, some very practical difficulties. First, New York admits New Jersey products absolutely free, and New Jersey also admits New York products absolutely free. This is quite a different situation from that which would exist if the United States admitted German products absolutely free, for Germany would still impose a duty on our products, and we should not have international free trade as we now have inter-State free trade. Secondly, Mr.

Bigelow's plan would make no provision for the differential between American and foreign rates of wages. If we should admit Oriental products free to all the ports on our six hundred miles of coast line, there would unquestionably be a downward movement in American wages. Massachusetts and New York, on the contrary, may interchange manufactures freely, for the wage scales of the two States are practically the same. It is this inequality between foreign and American wages that justifies the Republican party, in its platform, and Mr. Taft, in his letter of acceptance, in saying that the chief function of a protective tariff, after its employment as a revenue measure, is to cover the differential existing between American and foreign cost of production. Mr. Bigelow is right, however, we believe, in asserting that if the protected "interests" are permitted to make their own tariff without vigorous and persistent checks and opposition, they are likely to regard the consumers of the country in much the same spirit in which the Southern planters regarded the slaves.

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HOW MUCH PROTECTION WILL THE CONSUMER STAND?

Perhaps to some readers Mr. Bigelow's comparison of the highly protected "interests" to the slave-owning planters of ante-bellum days in the South may seem extravagant and fantastic. There are facts and figures, however, which clearly indicate that some of the protected "interests," like some of the great railway managers, are willing to impose upon the consumer "all the traffic will bear." A committee of the Wholesale Dry Goods Merchants Association of New York City, representing one hundred and four firms engaged in the cotton goods trade, has analyzed the cotton duties of the Aldrich Bill, and publishes some rather startling figures. Under the Dingley Act the duty on certain plain bleached cotton cloth, costing 15.56 cents per square yard, and widely used for women's and children's clothing, is 3.89 cents per square yard. The Aldrich Bill provides a duty on the same goods of 7.50 cents per square yard, making a duty increase of 93¾ per cent. If the market rises so that the cost of this cloth changes from 15.56 cents per square yard to anything over 16 cents per square yard, there will be an added duty which will make the difference between the present Dingley tariff and the proposed Aldrich tariff an increase of 121½ per cent! The committee's figures show that the Aldrich Bill proposes an increase of 51¼ per cent on colored cotton cloth, and increases of from 27 per cent to 46½ per cent on various kinds of dyed plain cotton cloth. These advances would affect the prices of every conceivable kind of clothing made of unbleached, bleached, and printed cotton cloths, for men, women, and children. They would also affect the prices of large classes of upholstery, floor covering, and bedding. Such firms as Messrs. H. B. Claflin & Co., of New York, and Messrs. Marshall Field & Co., of Chicago, are represented in the Association, whose membership is of such a character that its figures may, we think, be accepted with complete confidence. These enormous advances have been achieved by changing the rates in the cotton schedules from *ad valorem* duties to specific duties, a favorite method of tariff framers for concealing changes—generally increases—from any but the expert eye. The New York Evening Post asserts that these changes, or at least some of them, were literally written into the bill by a cotton manufacturer of Rhode Island who is a personal friend of Senator Aldrich's. This, of course, may be mere personal gossip, although it is made plausible by many years' history of tariff log-rolling and manipulation for personal ends. A despatch, also to the New York Evening Post, from Fall River, Massachusetts, states that "an advance in the price of finished [cotton] goods is looked for at any time by those conversant with market conditions." We should think so.

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THE TARIFF BILL IN CONFERENCE

Still another indication that the extreme protectionist wing of Congress is making every effort to resist "revision downward," and to maintain or increase the present scale of duties, is found in the appointments which Speaker Cannon has made of delegates from the House to the joint Conference Committee in which the Payne or House bill and the Aldrich Senate bill are being considered for adjustment and final passage. The creation of such a conference follows the precedent of other tariff-makings; thus every Tariff Act from the Walker Act of 1846 to the Dingley Act of 1897 has been considered in Conference for from one to twelve days. Tradition has established the rule of an equal number of conferees from Senate and House, of their appointment from the membership of the Finance Committee of the Senate and of the Ways and Means Committee of the House, and of their appointment by seniority, that is to say, according to the length of their service on the two committees from which they are chosen. The Senate conferees are therefore Mr. Aldrich, of Rhode Island, Chairman of the Finance Committee, and those succeeding him in the order of their appointment, namely, Senators Burrows, of Michigan, Penrose, of Pennsylvania, Hale, of Maine, and Cullom, of Illinois, Republicans; and Senators Money, of Mississippi, Daniel, of Virginia, and Bailey, of Texas, Democrats. The conferees on the part of the House appointed by Speaker Cannon are Representatives Payne, of New York, Dalzell, of Pennsylvania, McCall, of Massachusetts, Boutell, of Illinois, Calderhead, of Kansas, and Fordney, of Michigan, Republicans; and Clark, of Missouri, Underwood, of Alabama, and Griggs, of Georgia, Democrats. Of course the resultant bill will be framed by the Republican majority. Speaker Cannon has passed over Representative Hill, of Connecticut, and Representative Needham, of California, "fair traders," and substituted for them Representatives Calderhead, of Kansas, and Fordney, of Michigan, below them in seniority but noted for their advocacy of high duties. Mr. Cannon has also appointed a larger number of conferees than that representing the Senate, thus ignoring another precedent. The additional House conferee, Representative Fordney, of Michigan, is a militant opponent of any reduction of duty on lumber. Tariff revisionists desire free lumber, hides, coal, iron ore, and petroleum. The House or Payne Bill assents on everything but lumber, on which it cuts the present duty in half, but even this cut is objected to by Mr. Fordney. Speaker Cannon is, according to popular belief, an ultra-protectionist; his choice of conferees substantiates this view. It is true that the Speaker has a right to appoint his own conferees; we should certainly be among the last to criticise him for displaying independence of parliamentary traditions; but it is not unfair to infer from his appointments to the Conference that he considers that the protected interests ought to be looked after more carefully than the general consumer.

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AMENDING THE CONSTITUTION: THE ACTION OF CONGRESS

Although the present special session of Congress was called for the purpose of revising the tariff, it will possibly prove memorable as the occasion of a new amendment to the Federal Constitution. Both houses have adopted a joint resolution proposing to add to the Federal Constitution the following provision:

> The Congress shall have power to lay and collect direct taxes on incomes without apportionment among the several States according to population.

This action, taken in accordance with President Taft's recommendation, represents an unquestionably widespread popular sentiment, and is considered necessary because of the decision of the Supreme Court declaring the income tax law passed by Congress fifteen years ago to be unconstitutional. It has always proved difficult to secure amendments to the Constitution. In fact, the Constitution has been amended only four times. The first ten amendments were adopted at one time within two years of the adoption of the Constitution itself. The Eleventh Amendment followed within a decade. All these amendments are virtually the product of the movement which created the original document. The Twelfth Amendment, which changed the process of electing the President and Vice-President, provided a remedy for the one serious defect in the mechanism of government created by the Constitution; it was inevitable, and was declared in force almost exactly fourteen years after the Constitution was adopted. The remaining amendments were the fruit of civil war. In all, about two thousand

Amendments have been proposed, and of these only fifteen have been adopted. The Constitution provides that "The Congress, whenever two thirds of both Houses shall deem it necessary, shall propose Amendments to this Constitution, or, on the Application of the Legislatures of two thirds of the several States, shall call a Convention for proposing Amendments, which, in either Case, shall be valid to all Intents and Purposes, as Part of this Constitution, when ratified by the Legislatures of three fourths of the several States, or by Conventions in three fourths thereof, as the one or the other Mode of Ratification may be proposed by the Congress; Provided . . . that no State, without its Consent, shall be deprived of its equal Suffrage in the Senate." In the present case the amendment originates not with the States but with the Congress. There is, therefore, no occasion for the summoning of a National Convention. Congress proposes an Amendment by passing a joint resolution, which must receive the votes of two-thirds of the members present in each of the two houses of Congress. In general, a joint resolution requires the President's signature. In the case of a joint resolution proposing a Constitutional Amendment, however, the precedents are against the Presidential signature. The validity of the Eleventh Amendment was questioned in the courts on the ground that the President had not signed the resolution submitting it. Chief Justice Chase, in deciding the case, said: "The President has nothing to do with the proposition or adoption of amendments to the Constitution." The resolution proposing the Thirteenth Amendment was signed by President Lincoln, but the Senate adopted a resolution declaring that "such approval was unnecessary and shall not constitute a precedent." In the case of the Fourteenth Amendment President Johnson sent a message to Congress announcing that his function was purely ministerial. After the resolution proposing an Amendment has been adopted by Congress, a copy of it, signed by the Speaker of the House and the President of the Senate, is sent by the Secretary of State to each Governor with a letter notifying him of the action of Congress. In order that the proposed Amendment should become effective, it must receive the ratification of three-fourths of the States. It rests with Congress to decide whether the method of ratification shall be by the State Legislature or by a State Convention. All States must adopt the method decided on by Congress. As in all cases hitherto, Congress has determined that the ratification in this instance must be by the Legislature.

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AMENDING THE CONSTITUTION: THE ACTION OF THE STATES

After the Governor of a State receives the resolution from Congress proposing an Amendment to the Federal Constitution, he usually submits it by message to the State Legislature. He need take no further action, though Governors have been known to sign resolutions of this sort; and in one instance a Governor vetoed the action of the Legislature. This was the Governor of New Hampshire in the case of the Twelfth Amendment. As New Hampshire's vote was not needed, this action was never tested. Inasmuch as the Constitution mentions, not the law-making power, but "the Legislatures," the Federal State Department holds that the Governor's signature is not necessary. After each house of the State Legislature adopts the resolution, the question, so far as that State is concerned, is closed. The State cannot thereafter withdraw its ratification. Three States attempted to withdraw their approval of the Fourteenth Amendment, but Congress adopted a concurrent resolution declaring their ratification valid, and the Secretary of State included their action in a proclamation announcing the adoption of the Amendment. On the other hand, a State that has rejected an Amendment may reconsider its action at any time previous to the incorporation of the Amendment in the Constitution. After an Amendment has been once submitted to the States, it may be revived whenever three-fourths of the States shall ratify it, even if part of them may have refused ratification. There is no time limit. In 1873 the Ohio Senate ratified an Amendment submitted in 1789. In connection with the Fourteenth Amendment an attempt was made to adopt a resolution providing a term of three years for ratification, but it was defeated. Twelve States can block the ratification of the income tax Amendment; but if, at some future time, one or more of those twelve States should reconsider their action and ratify, the Amendment would be adopted as a part of the Constitution, even though it had meanwhile slept for half a century. When a State Legislature ratifies an Amendment, the State's Secretary of State sends a certified copy of its action to the Secretary of State of the United States. The Federal Secretary of State is charged with the duty of determining when a sufficient number of ratifications have been received. As soon as he determines that, he issues a proclamation declaring that the Amendment has been adopted. No action is required by the President. The Amendments so far adopted have not been kept in uniform style. The Constitution is a written document. Some of the Amendments are written and some printed. The income tax Amendment, if adopted, will probably be printed on parchment, and, after being attested by the Secretary of State, deposited in the safe with the Constitution and the other Amendments.

THE ALTON BONDS AND THE SAVINGS BANKS

Our readers will remember that in the month of April The Appeal to Reason, the notorious organ of the Debs wing of the Socialist party, made a furious charge that Mr. Roosevelt had been the direct instrument by which millions of dollars of savings were lost through the purchase of bonds of the Alton Railway. These bonds were listed, as legally purchasable for savings banks' investment, by a bill which Mr. Roosevelt signed in 1900, when Governor of New York. In The Outlook of April 24 we gave all the facts in the case; these are that the Alton bonds, when listed, conformed to the high standards required by the State of New York, that it was not then known to Mr. Roosevelt or to financiers generally that there had been anything open to criticism in their creation, and that the savings banks, so far from suffering any special loss by the addition of these bonds to the legal list, are carrying them on their books to-day as excellent assets, which, if depreciated at all, have depreciated only in the general downward movement of all so-called "gilt-edged" securities since 1900. We have received a letter from Mr. Roosevelt, written in Nairobi, British East Africa, on June 1, in which he confirms our statement of these facts. He adds:

> There is a further fact which you may like to know. When I became Governor, various proposed bills were laid before me permitting savings banks to invest in different kinds of securities. I answered to all that I would not accept my own or any other private individual's judgment in such a matter, and that I should require in each case the indorsement of the Savings Banks Association, through the regular officials thereof. This law in question received their indorsement, and I signed it accordingly, without the slightest reference to, and, indeed, probably hardly knowing, the fact that Mr. Harriman was concerned in it.

The letter from which the above quotation is taken states that Mr. Roosevelt's party has so far had a very successful trip, and that he has already completed some of the articles describing his expedition and its adventures, which are to be published exclusively in Scribner's Magazine, beginning next October. Mr. Roosevelt adds: "I am very much interested in all kinds of things which I see here, from white settlements to missionary work, and I shall have much to tell you when I get back."

AN AMERICAN SCHOLAR

It is often contended that the United States, whatever its achievements in other directions, does not produce great scholars. But there died at Washington last week a man of science—American for more than fifty years—whom the world delighted to honor. The country which did not honor Simon Newcomb with the distinction of a degree or a title or a medal or a prize made itself conspicuous by the very omission. He received the degree of Doctor of Letters from Columbian University, in Washington, in 1874; and the same distinction was conferred successively by Yale, Harvard, Columbia, Edinburgh, Glasgow, Princeton, Cracow, Johns Hopkins, and Toronto. He received the degree of Doctor of Science from Heidelberg, Padua, Dublin, and

Cambridge. Christiania made him Doctor of Mathematics, Oxford Doctor of Civil Law, Leyden Master of Mathematics and Doctor of Natural Philosophy. He was the first American since Benjamin Franklin to be made an Associate of the Institute of France, of whom there are only eight outside that country. He was made an officer of the Legion of Honor in 1893, and a Commander of that order in 1907. From the German Emperor he received knighthood in the Prussian Order of Merit for Science and Art. The Royal Astronomical Society of Great Britain conferred upon him a gold medal, the Dutch Society of Science the Huygens gold medal, the Astronomical Society of the Pacific the Bruce gold medal, Russia the Schubert gold medal, and Johns Hopkins the Sylvester prize. Professor Newcomb was a great astronomer and a great mathematician. For thirty-six years he was connected with the United States Naval Academy as Professor of Mathematics, with especial duties at the Naval Observatory at Washington. For ten years he was also Professor of Mathematics and Astronomy in Johns Hopkins University. The great work which he accomplished during nearly half a century of astronomical investigation was not spectacular, nor such as to give him popular fame. His labors were almost wholly within the domain of what is known as celestial mechanics. He studied with the most minute and painstaking care the elements of the solar system, not so much from the point of view of an observer as from that of a mathematician. As the result of his work the dimensions, weights, and orbits of the principal planets, the larger asteroids, and the more important satellites have been measured accurately. He made extensive researches into the motion of the moon, and in this domain as in others he provided the most valuable data for all other astronomical workers. Through his work it has become possible to predict eclipses to the minute; by his computations the existence of the satellites of Mars was discovered before they were actually observed, by one of his assistants; and his calculations disproved the suspected presence of a planet between Mercury and the sun. The tables of the motions of the stars, planets, and the moon, used as the basis of the navigation of vessels the world over, were first made and published by Professor Newcomb. To Nova Scotia belongs the honor of his birth and early education. His family was of New England origin. At the age of eighteen he came to the United States, where he completed his education and began and finished his life work. He died at the age of seventy-four, after ten months' suffering from cancer. Almost from the first he had known that recovery was impossible, but his tireless energy and indomitable spirit kept him at work upon his book, "The Motion of the Moon," until its completion a few weeks before his death. Superlatives are always dangerous, but once or twice in a generation a man arises who may claim them as his right. Simon Newcomb was recognized by his fellow-scientists all over the world as the greatest astronomer of his time.

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MAYOR JOHNSON OF CLEVELAND AGAIN About two years ago, when the street railway system of Cleveland, Ohio, became involved in legal and financial difficulties of such a nature that the citizens were greatly inconvenienced in their use of street transportation facilities, Mayor Tom L. Johnson formed a plan by which all the street car lines of the city should be operated by a holding company, the Municipal Traction Company. He proposed that this holding company should be managed by a board of independent trustees, who would operate the street cars, not for private profit, but for the benefit of the citizens. His plan appealed to The Outlook, and we compared it to the plan by which hospitals or public museums or savings banks are conducted. It seemed to us at the time that if the street railway problem of Cleveland, which is typical of the street railway problem of many other cities of the United States, could be settled on this basis it would be a great step in advance in the management of all public utilities. For this reason, in the municipal controversy connected with Mr. Johnson's candidacy as Mayor upon this platform, we urged his election and the adoption of his plan. Mr. Johnson was elected, the plan was put into operation, and proved to be a disastrous failure. The Municipal Tractian Company, Mr. Johnson's own creation, is now hopelessly bankrupt and its affairs are in the hands of a receiver appointed by the Federal Courts; investors who followed Mr. Johnson's advice in buying street railway stock created and sold by him have lost their money; a savings bank which he established, and of which he was president, affiliated with his street railway plan, has been compelled to close its doors. The street traction conditions of Cleveland are to-day in a worse state than ever. A citizen of Cleveland, conversant with all the various reorganizations and adjustments of the roads, tells us that to-day it is impossible for a man to tell, when he gets on a car, whether he is going to pay five cents, or three cents, or the little aluminum token which Mayor Johnson has issued as a street car ticket. Indeed, some of the fares run up to thirteen cents. A plan proposed by Judge Tayler, of the Federal Court, for the settlement of all these difficulties, which would enable all the street car lines of Cleveland to be run at a uniform fare, which should rise or fall in accordance with the net earnings of the company, limited by the plan itself to six per cent, was defeated by Mayor Johnson. This plan had the backing of the Chamber of Commerce of the city. Mayor Johnson has now proposed another method of reorganization of the street railways, and his new plan will be submitted to the voters of Cleveland on August 3, in a special election. His record of disastrous failure as a reorganizer of the street railways of Cleveland is such that he ought to be decisively defeated.

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HEROES OF CHRISTIAN MISSIONS

The heroes of war have never lacked for appreciative remembrance by their fellow-men; the men whose heroic stature was achieved in less conspicuous fields have not always been honored as their self-sacrifice warranted. But at the Yale Commencement the work of three of these more unpretentious heroes received recognition from their fellow-students. After the Alumni meeting, one of the older and one of the younger classes, '53 and '99, presented to the University memorial tablets just placed by them in Memorial Hall to classmates who gave their lives to missionary work in non-Christian lands—Bingham and Harding of '53, and Mann of '99—Bingham in Micronesia, Harding in India, Mann in China. The significance of this was well expressed by Dr. Andrew D. White, of '53, recently Ambassador to Germany, in his address of presentation: "Among the classmates we have lost were others in Church, in State, in literature, in scholarship, who held places which the world considered higher than the places held by either of these men, as things go in this world. And yet, when we wish to leave with an Alma Mater the names which she must not willingly let die, we have named these two. We have named them because their ideals were the highest, and because they sacrificed most to make those ideals real. . . . Men like these have given the world something better than any material success in making savage races into twentieth-century men of labor and business. These two classmates of ours gave to our land, to us, to all our thinking fellow-citizens, something more precious than this—noble ideals of self-sacrifice, of the spirit of St. Paul, something of the spirit, we may say reverently, of Christ himself. . . . These names, therefore, we deliver to our Alma Mater, for the inspiration of successive generations of students in Yale University during all the coming centuries." It is significant that of the five tablets which have been placed in the Memorial Hall at Yale four commemorate the lives of men who died in the East, and that three of these four were men who gave their lives to Christian missions.

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PORTO RICO

Congress has passed, with substantial unanimity, the bill prepared by the President, applying to Porto Rico the same provision which it had previously applied to Hawaii and to the Philippines. Under this provision, in the future, if at any session the House of Delegates fails to make appropriations to carry on the Government, the appropriations of the previous year will be continued in force. This is the answer of the Congress to the attempt by certain politicians in Porto Rico to coerce the people of the United States into political action which their duly constituted representatives do not approve. The Executive Council, which is a quasi Senate and represents both the people of Porto Rico and the people of the United States, refused to approve certain legislation prepared by the House of Delegates, which is an elective body. Thereupon the House of Delegates said, If you do not approve the measures which we propose, you shall not have money to carry on the government. To which Congress has now replied to the House of Delegates, You shall no longer have power to withhold appropriations. This is the issue stated in brief. We do not here discuss, nor even restate, the legislation proposed by the House of Delegates and disapproved by the Executive Council. In our judgment, the Executive Council was wise to disapprove it; but that is not the issue. Congress gave to an elected House of Delegates power to initiate and enact legislation, subject to the approval of an Executive Council of eleven, appointed by the President of the United States, at least five of whom are required to be Porto Ricans. The House of Delegates wished to abolish this veto power of the Executive Council and control absolutely the legislation of the island, and Congress has wisely refused them the power they demanded, and has put a limitation on their power to withhold appropriations. In the debate over this bill, both within and outside of Congress, it has been argued that the Porto Ricans have been only following English and American precedents; to quote the words of one of the debaters, "the weapon invariably adopted by the Anglo-Saxon race in its struggles for self-government has been this one of tying the purse-strings until its demands were granted." There are two answers to that statement. In the first place, so far as we have been able to ascertain, there is no instance in English history, even during the periods of bitterest struggle against monarchical power, in which Parliament attempted, as the Porto Rican House of Delegates attempted, to win a victory by paralyzing the whole governmental organization. In the second place, it is to be remembered that the money the expenditure of which the House of Delegates attempted to control is not money raised by the Porto Rican Government, but is money which ordinarily goes into the Treasury of the United States and only by action of Congress is passed on to the Treasury of Porto Rico. The American reader should also understand that there is in this case no issue between the people of Porto Rico and the people of the United States. The Executive Council, nearly half of whom are Porto Ricans, disapproved the proposed legislation, and, it is safe to say with substantial if not with absolute unanimity, disapproved the action of the House of Delegates in withholding appropriations. In point of fact, the people of the island have been very little concerned in what has been purely a game of politics, in which certain Porto Rican politicians have played for absolute control of the island—and have lost. Business has been unaffected, and the growing friendships between American residents and native Porto Ricans have not been disturbed by the incident.

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WILL BOLIVIA BEHAVE? For many years the rich territory of Acre has been a source of dispute among the three countries which want it—Brazil, Bolivia, and Peru. Acre occupies a region on the eastern slope of the Andes, embracing the head waters of the Madeira, Aquiry, Purus, and other rivers which find their way into the Amazon. All three countries claim a right to the territory through documents dating from the time when the countries were under the rule of the Spanish and Portuguese kings. Part of the contested territory was ceded to Brazil by Bolivia when the war of five years ago was terminated, Brazil paying to Bolivia ten million dollars in return. But Peru has not relinquished her claim to some of this land over which Brazil now holds dominion, and certainly not to the land claimed by Bolivia. Instead of going to war about the matter, Peru and Bolivia agreed to submit their claim to arbitration. The arbitrator was not to be the International Court of Arbitration at The Hague, but, instead, the President of Argentina. Last week it was announced that he had decided in favor of Peru. Bolivia's realization that it was in danger of losing coveted territory was followed by an attack by a mob on the Argentine Legation in La Paz, the capital of Bolivia. Crowds ran through the streets crying, "Death to Argentina and Peru!" The sentiment at La Paz was the more acute because Bolivians had advocated arbitration by Argentina on account of the specially friendly ties between that country and Bolivia. The exasperated Bolivians may not have recollected that their Government pledged its faith when it submitted its case, and that if now it approved any bellicose sentiments toward either Peru or Argentina, Bolivia's honor would suffer. Yet it is reported that the Bolivian Government refused to accept Argentina's decision, basing its action on the fact that part of the territory which Peru never occupied is recognized by the award as belonging to Peru. Despite sectional grievances, we hope that the international situation may not be further compromised. It makes little difference to the world at large where the Bolivian boundary runs. But it makes a great difference to the world at large whether arbitral awards are accepted or not. And hence it makes a great difference whether Bolivia, one of the countries represented at the Hague Peace Conference, which took a special stand in favor of arbitration, should now allow the more unthinking part of its populace to dictate its Government's course. If this should continue, it certainly would be an argument for the desirability of an international army and navy to enforce arbitral decrees of international cases, when there is, as now, contempt of court, just as United States marshals enforce the decrees of United States courts, and just as the local police enforce the decrees of local courts.

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OLD WRONGS UNRIGHTED

There is something wearisome in the very name of The Congo. Its story of wrong and oppression has become ineffective by repetition. A few years ago, when the form of injustice which King Leopold's Government worked upon the natives was newly revealed, it created public indignation. Now the narrative has become stale. Because wrong has become habitual there is no reason, however, why efforts to eradicate the wrong should be discontinued. As a matter of fact, those who have undertaken the task of helping these natives who are powerless to help themselves have been working quietly but effectively. When the Congo question was most actively discussed, it was the specific atrocities, the alleged beating and maiming of prisoners and recalcitrant workers, that were emphasized and were made the basis for appeals to the public conscience. These atrocities, so far as they have existed, are, however, but the symptoms of graver and more oppressive evils. It was these more fundamental wrongs which the Commission created by King Leopold himself reported and which are undeniable. These are the evils of land appropriation and of forced labor. No matter how many travelers may testify that they have never seen any atrocity committed, the oppressiveness of the Congo Government in herding natives within restricted areas, and in exacting from the natives under the guise of taxation a disproportionate amount of labor, is an outrage worse than specific instances of brutality, because it rests not upon an individual here and there, but upon an entire population. It is these evils against which the British and American Governments have been protesting. Extracts recently published from correspondence between the Belgian Government on one side and the Governments of Great Britain and the United States on the other indicate how far from settlement the Congo question still remains. In a recent communication to the Belgium Government the British Government say that "they are anxious to recognize the Belgian Government of the Congo, but they cannot do so until it is clear that the abuses of taxation and forced labor, including the system carried out by the Kasai Company, have ceased. . . ." The British Government also notes that British subjects cannot trade in the Congo so long as "the natives are deprived of the right to sell the natural products of the soil." The United States Government has also protested to the Belgian Government concerning the affairs of the Congo Independent State, and has declined to recognize the annexation of that State by

Belgium until it is assured that the reforms in the land system and the labor tax have been instituted. Belgium has recently published a Gray Book, which recounts the history of negotiations between Belgium and the United States. In the course of those negotiations Belgium has promised to see that reforms were carried out, and has asked the American Government to recognize the immensity of Belgium's task. It is hard, however, to believe altogether in the good faith of a Government which, without adequate investigation, has dragged two American missionaries a thousand miles to stand trial for complaining about outrages which they have seen. Dr. Morrison, who is from Virginia, and Dr. Sheppard, a negro of the same State, called the attention of officers of the Kasai Company to wrongs perpetrated by the Company's agents. A judge went to the region of the mission to investigate, but left without hearing the witnesses who were on hand ready to testify. As a last resort, Dr. Morrison wrote to the Governor-General of the State, and in reply received—a lawsuit for "calumnious denunciation." A Government that has been guilty of what its own Commission has charged it with should be in better business than that of dragging through the jungle missionaries who have criticised it.

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PERSIA CONSTITUTIONAL BY FORCE

Last week the Persian Constitutionalists captured Teheran, the Persian capital. On January 1, 1907, the Persian Shah granted a Constitution to his people. His successor, ascending the throne, swore allegiance to the Constitution. But that did not prevent him from nullifying it. Now the Persians are an Oriental people and long-suffering. But they are not to be thus treated. Japan's example had shown them what Orientals might do, and, though they might never reach a Japanese civilization, they would not relapse into their former barbarism. The taste of constitutional government and of a representative Parliament had developed into an appetite. The Shah's betrayal aroused immediate and lasting protest—in many places an armed protest. At Tabriz, the most important city of North Persia, the Constitutionalists are still in possession of the place. To relieve the distress of the foreigners in the city besieged by the Shah's forces, the Russians recently sent an expedition. While the Shah has been trying to cope with the situation in the north, in the south the Bakhtiari tribesmen, the fighting race of Persia, rose and captured the famous city of Ispahan, formerly the metropolis of Persia, some two hundred miles south of Teheran. Then, when the Shah promulgated a new franchise and ordered the election of a new Parliament, these tribesmen refused to believe him, and declared that he might repudiate all this, as he had done before. Accordingly, they marched on Teheran. Their Ilkhani, or chief, Sadar-as-Sad, is a wary man, as has been shown by the capture of the capital. Leaving a small force to keep the Shah's troops busy at a point where for some days there had been skirmishing, the main body, under Sadar-as-Sad, made a detour and forced the northern gates when insurgents were supposed to be at the southern. Meanwhile the leader of the Constitutional forces from the north, Sipahdar Khan, with a large number of adherents, evaded the Shah's troops and arrived at Teheran just in time to effect a junction with the Bakhtiari. The combined forces from north and south entered the city together. A specially interesting feature of the capture of Teheran by the Persian Constitutionalists is its close parallel with the capture of Constantinople by the Turkish Constitutionalists.

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THE JEWS AND THE LAND OF ABRAHAM

It is reported that the Turkish Parliament has extended an invitation to the Jews of Russia and Rumania to emigrate to Turkey, at the same time giving assurance that all restrictions against Jewish immigration will be abolished, and full citizenship conferred upon the immigrants immediately upon their arrival in Turkey. The invitation has aroused renewed interest in the project for Jewish colonization of Mesopotamia. This plan may be said to have had its origin in the report of the German engineers in connection with the Bagdad Railway. If that great enterprise, to which Germany stands committed, is to be made the success hoped for by its promoters, it is essential that a transformation should be brought about in Mesopotamia; that such a change is possible the reports of the engineers plainly demonstrated. They found that the valley between the Tigris and the Euphrates, the Mesopotamia of ancient and modern times, was, like Egypt, an alluvial country, the gift of the rivers encompassing it. Underneath the surface sand, which gives this region to-day its dreary, desolate appearance, there is a deep, black, rich soil, capable under irrigation of supporting a dense population. The great beds and banks of the ancient canals by which this region was formerly irrigated still exist, and could be mended and made serviceable again at a cost slight as compared with what must have been the original expenditure. With these canals repaired and the smaller ones leading from them reconstructed, and with a network of sluices leading to all parts of the land, Mesopotamia could again be made the garden spot of the world, such as it was in ancient times, when it was the seat successively of Assyrian, Babylonian, Macedonian, Syrian, and Parthian dominion, and later the most important eastern province of the Roman Empire. In a special sense this region appeals to the Jewish race. It was in this region, according to the most venerable record of history, the Book of Genesis, that Abraham, the patriarch of the race, settled, and from which he afterward migrated to Canaan. It was here, also, that Jacob won his wives, Rachel and Leah, and that his sons were born. A short time before the dethronement of Abdul-Hamid he sent for Sir William Willcocks, who had recently been over the whole of the Mesopotamian region, and asked him the results of his investigations. Sir William estimated that for an expenditure of seven and a half million pounds, or less than forty million dollars, more than three million acres of rich and might again be made productive. This means that a region of nearly five thousand square miles would be available for colonization, the revenue from which, when again brought into cultivation, would be enormous. Mr. Jacob H. Schiff, of New York, is also interested in the plan, but, like a wise financier, he is counting the cost, and thinks that it would be prohibitive except by a general combination of all Jewish organizations to that end. He thinks a sum of $200,000,000 would be necessary to insure the success of such a scheme. The project to return the Jewish race, long a wanderer in strange lands, to the home of its fathers, and to recreate a Jewish nation, makes a strong appeal to the imagination and to sentiment.

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WHICH—MASTER OR SERVANT?

The reception awarded by the country to Mr. Roosevelt's editorial on "The Thraldom of Names" has made evident that in his absence from the country he has suffered no loss of leadership. Echoes from this article reach us from every section and nearly every State in the Union. A few of these are sharp remonstrances, one or two are ill-tempered and vicious personal attacks, but mainly they are hearty commendation. The New York Sun labels the article "Still Lying about the Courts;" the Dallas (Texas) News, "Serving Chestnuts to a Long-Suffering Public;" and the Oswego (N. Y.) Palladium, "A Growl from the Jungle." But these are the exceptional discords in a general chorus of approval, and only serve to make that approval the more emphatic. Some quotations may serve to interpret to our readers this public indorsement of Mr. Roosevelt's latest utterance on this theme:

"'Coming at this time, Mr. Roosevelt's discussion of corporate problems will give peculiar emphasis to recommendations just submitted to Congress by President Taft, for these recommendations seek a correction of some of the abuses adverted to by the former President." President Taft's Message is "like an echo to this voice from the jungle." It is a "bugle note;" "he points out more clearly and prophetically than we who differ from him in party faith the real and the only serious menace to our Government, to wit, the arrogant mailed fist of abnormal wealth and its treacherous and revengeful spawn of poverty and wretchedness." It is a call to "full speed ahead," and while "addressed generally to the American people, it is probably somewhat directed to President Taft as a word of approval for what has been done already, and of encouragement toward a continuance of that work." In this editorial Mr. Roosevelt has "said something worth while, in a few hundred words." "There must be law to control the big men, and therefore especially the big corporations, in the industrial world, in the interest of our industrial democracy of to-day." "The ex-President is right: This Government ought to be rescued from the hands of the very rich who are using it for unhealthy purposes." "There is no mistaking the Roosevelt touch and the Roosevelt aim in the article. . . . It is full of the Roosevelt earnestness, the Roosevelt justice, the Roosevelt love of fair play and common sense. . . . No country can have too much preaching of that kind from so popular a preacher. No nation can fail to be helped on its upward and onward way by such doctrine as the Roosevelt gospel of justice and equality of opportunity for all classes, sections, races, and interests, urged upon its attention by the eloquent voice and pen of a leader loved and honored by millions of his countrymen." "The old-time accusation that he 'talks as if he had just discovered the Ten Commandments' . . . can lie only in the mouth of the most superficial critic. . . . Say what you will, the American people have their full share of fickleness, and can be as mercurial as any nation on earth when they feel like it. It won't do us any harm to have Mr. Roosevelt preaching welcome doctrine to us once a week, and drawing similes from the French Revolution. We need it, and we shouldn't know what to do without it, in all probability." Mr. Roosevelt's doctrine contains all the Socialism the country needs: "The crooked business is business done outside of the laws the people have made to protect themselves from just such impositions. It can be carried on only by the crooked rich controlling the Government, and therefore the law itself. When this condition is overcome, when the people have the full benefit of the laws they have made for their protection against these impositions and abuses, then we will be living in a state of fairly good Socialism." As to the bitter attacks on Mr. Roosevelt for this article by a few exceptional journals, their significance is correctly interpreted by the Grand Rapids (Michigan) Press: "The monopolies do not rest much easier even though Mr. Roosevelt is in Africa."

Such are a few of the responses which Mr. Roosevelt's article has evoked. They are quite convincing upon one point: the American people are resolved that the being which they have created shall not become their over-lord. A corporation is like fire—an excellent servant but a bad master. As master it has corrupted legislatures and endeavored to bribe courts; it has used the power of a subsidized press to mislead and misinterpret public opinion; it has underpaid labor and overcharged the consumer; it has provoked workingmen to strike and then has armed its own retainers to carry on private war with them; it has sometimes openly, sometimes fraudulently, secured special favors from the administrators of our National highways and used this power to crush its competitors. It has employed false weights and measures, sold adulterated goods with lying labels, lobbied to prevent laws designed to protect the public from these and kindred abuses, and employed astute counsel to evade the laws when they were enacted. It has taken the savings of the poor, promising to invest them securely, and has spent them in reckless gambling operations. And it has fought by every means in its power all attempts to prevent by law the continuance of these public vices rapidly growing into a National calamity.

On the other hand, as a servant, the corporation has bound together East and West and North and South by highways, which are more potent bonds of union than laws and constitutions. It has made public intercourse cheap, rapid, and easy, and, as a consequence, the famines which have been the tragedy of other lands are impossible in ours. It has made accessible at reasonable prices a standard light for every rural and village home, and so has given to practically every man, woman, and child in the country the winter evenings for reading and study. It has discovered our mineral treasures, dug them out of their hiding-places, and made them available for the common people. It has cheapened our food products and given habitable houses to millions who without the corporation would be ill housed or not housed at all. Through the instrumentality of unnumbered savings banks, it has wisely invested the savings of millions of the common people who could never have safely invested for themselves. The corporation has found or created employment for innumerable laborers who never could have found or created the opportunity for themselves. The New Bedford (Mass.) Standard is quite right in saying that "A corporation is one of the most effective instruments for co-operation this world has ever seen." It is a democratic contrivance by which wealth is centralized for efficiency in employment, and distributed in profits to a great number of owners. When the managers of a corporation manage the money intrusted to them for the benefit of the stockholders whose money it is, and for the benefit of the public which has created the corporation, when, that is, they are honest and intelligent, their public service is inestimable and is not overpaid. When they are false to the trust reposed in them, when they use the power which the concentrated wealth of others has put into their hands to cheat the owners and oppress the public, they are criminals, and should be treated as criminals. And The Outlook repeats what Mr. Roosevelt has so well said: "We must draw the line, not on wealth nor on poverty, but on conduct. We must stand for the good citizen because he is a good citizen, whether he be rich or whether he be poor, and we must mercilessly attack the man who does evil, wholly without regard to whether the evil is done in high or low places, whether it takes the form of homicidal violence among the members of a federation of miners, or of unscrupulous craft and greed in the head of some great Wall Street corporation." And we may add that no one is more interested in the maintenance and efficient administration of just and discriminating laws for the prevention of craft and greed than the honest and capable administrators of those great corporations which aim to be the servants, not the masters, of the stockholders and of the public.

THE YEAR IN EDUCATION

In the main, the year in education has been notable for discussions rather than for events.

The universities have been a favorite theme. One does not readily recall another year in which university problems have been so much talked about. Some of this discussion has taken the form of adverse criticism, ranging from a Catholic bishop's recent charge that our higher institutions were undermining faith and morals, to Mr. Flexner's keen analysis of the dangers of graduate instruction. But the remarkable thing about it all has been a widespread recognition of the dominant influence the universities have come to exercise in our American life.

President Woodrow Wilson has made some striking and suggestive contributions to this discussion. The recent centenary celebration of Miami University—a notable event in many ways—called forth interesting utterances relative to college life and influence. The magazines have offered an unusual number of readable articles on university topics. Mr. Clarence Birdseye, after issuing a second volume on the shortcomings of college and university management, has secured the incorporation of the Higher Education Association, with a view to bettering the conditions found in these institutions.

A particularly impressive fact is the unmistakable spread to the Eastward of the State-university idea. Its appearance is generally marked by an intangible change of attitude and sentiment, both in and out of the universities. But such a change has been clearly accentuated in the past year by the action of the Cornell authorities in securing from the New York Legislature a modification of their university charter. The amendment provides for the appointment of three of the trustees of the University by the Governor of the State, with the approval of the State Senate. It is to be expected that if this change proves advantageous it will lead to other steps in the direction of State control.

The State universities are themselves undergoing internal changes. Iowa and West Virginia are trying the experiment of bringing all of their State institutions of higher education under a single governing board. In a recent article in the Michigan Alumnus, Professor James R. Angell has proposed that a State university go as far as its organic act will permit in the direction of alumni participation in the shaping of university policy. On the whole, the University of Wisconsin has been the center of interest during the year. The idea has come abroad that no other educational institution has become so intimately associated with the public life of its State. The new plans of university extension upon which Wisconsin has entered, even in their beginnings, have excited public interest to an unusual degree. There is that about them—a touch of plain life and overalls, a college opportunity for shop boys in the shop—which makes a strong appeal to many for whom the more conventional forms of university extension have had but little interest.

A like spirit and purpose, coming to light in New England, has prompted the lower house of the Massachusetts State Legislature to pass unanimously an act for the incorporation of a proposed "Massachusetts College." This institution, projected by Mr. Edmund D. Barbour, of Boston, is intended to overcome the limitations of locality with which college education is ordinarily hedged about, by carrying instruction of collegiate grade to those communities in which it may be sought by any considerable number of young people who are unable to attend a distant institution. The bill would make the trustees of the proposed college a private corporation, but would authorize them to make use of school-houses and other public buildings, out of regular hours and with the consent of the authorities in control of those buildings, for the purposes for which the college is t established. Not only collegiate instruction but the granting of academic degrees is proposed. The qualifications to be required for such degrees are to be prescribed by an advisory committee, of whom the majority are to be the presidents of the other colleges within the Commonwealth, or their representatives. This noteworthy measure did not pass the Senate, but a joint resolution of both Houses of the Legislature instructed the reorganized State Board of Education to report, not later than January, 1910, on the advisability of establishing such a corporation.

An important contribution has been made to the literature of higher education as a concern of the National Government in a bulletin prepared by President Hadley, of Yale University, and issued by the Federal Bureau of Education. This bulletin presents for the first time a full account of the opportunities for advanced study and research which are available in the several governmental departments and independent bureaus at Washington. On the whole, the showing which this bulletin makes is disappointing. While certain offices offer great advantages, of which numerous students already avail themselves, many others, because of inadequate staff and appliances for any but the most pressing administrative duties, find such a course altogether impracticable. This account makes it clear that nothing even approximating a National University can be built up by the mere aggregation of opportunities afforded by existing Government offices. The setting forth of such facilities as are at hand in certain of the Government libraries, laboratories, and museums will, however, be of great service to advanced students and investigators.

The year has been marked by the retirement of Presidents Eliot, of Harvard, Andrews, of Nebraska, Tucker, of Dartmouth, Raymond, of Union, O'Connell, of the Catholic University, Seelye, of Smith, Goucher, of the Woman's College of Baltimore, and Merrifield, of North Dakota, and by the resignation of Presidents Angell, of Michigan, and Northrop, of Minnesota, whose successors have not yet been announced. It has also witnessed the termination of two careers of unusual distinction in the death of Presidents Daniel Coit Gilman and Carroll D. Wright.

It would be difficult to estimate the change which these occurrences have wrought in the character of our higher education. The list contains the names of those who have given a distinctive coloring to our university and college life as it was passed over from the nineteenth century to the twentieth. The storm of criticism which has beaten upon our higher institutions in the course of the year is coincident with the beginning of change which the passing of such leaders from their active leadership would foreshadow. Whatever the change may be which shall follow, it is clear that these institutions have become the objects of universal concern, the centers of National influence, and that largely through the leadership of that remarkable presidential group which is just now laying down the presidential burdens.

Dr. A. Lawrence Lowell at Harvard and the several other new presidents of the year now join that twentieth-century group of which Presidents Hadley, of Yale, Butler, of Columbia, Schurman, of Cornell, Wheeler, of California, Van Hise, of Wisconsin, Alderman, of Virginia, and Wilson, of Princeton, are already such conspicuous members and leaders. The new list leaves no room for fear that our great universities will fail to meet the needs and difficulties of this new age.

Among the numerous gifts and bequests to universities during the past year, especial interest has centered in the Vilas bequest to the University of Wisconsin. It has been estimated that this endowment will approximate two million dollars in value, no part of which will become available during the lifetime of Mrs. Vilas. The eventual administration of the fund by the University is to involve the expenditure in the earlier years of only a portion of the annual income, the remainder to be added to the principal until that shall have reached a total of twenty millions of dollars. Not only the magnitude of this endowment in itself, but the fact that it is to be largely devoted to provision for research, renders it unusually significant. It warms the imagination to think what an agency of enlightenment the university of the State may become with such resources at its command. In such an institution, so liberally endowed, there will appear, as an adjunct of the State government, an instrument for the scientific investigation of any question which may concern the general welfare of the State.

At the same time that education under State auspices is coming so markedly to the fore, the great influence of private foundations recently established for the furtherance of educational interests throughout the country has become strikingly manifest. Considerable discussion has centered upon these foundations in the course of the twelvemonth. The General Education Board and the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching have chiefly commanded attention. During the year the expression "Carnegie units" has come into general use. Its currency is significant of the fact that the Carnegie Foundation has already brought about a common acceptance of defined standards in secondary and higher education, where even five years ago such an accomplishment seemed a generation removed. The power of the Foundation has been further illustrated in the summary removal of the George Washington University from the list of its beneficiaries. This action is too recent to have had all sides of the case brought fully before the public as yet. The George Washington authorities will in all likelihood present their view in a protest against the action taken. The promptness with which half a dozen of the leading State-university States have availed themselves of the provision by the Carnegie Foundation for retiring allowances for the faculties of their universities indicates the general approval with which the activities of that Foundation are regarded. There can be no doubt that, whatever fault may be found with particular acts, the broad statesmanship and educational insight which have marked the administration of these great endowments have contributed immeasurably to the advance of American education in recent years. We have, in fact, passed into a stage of our educational development in which our National educational standards are determined—for the first time with any precision—by agencies in no wise under Government control.

The educational movement in the Southern States continues to command widespread interest. The Southern Educational Conference met at Atlanta in April of this year, its sessions being largely attended and proving highly interesting and significant. The "whirlwind campaigns" carried on in the State of Kentucky, having for their object the awakening of public interest and the increase of local taxation for schools, have been largely effective. Tennessee has carried out successfully a plan for grouping all State appropriations for education in one measure, and has made provision for a State Inspector of High Schools. North Carolina has provided for the supervision of its various agencies for the improvement of teachers by a member of the staff of the State Education Office. Missouri, for the first time, has made regular county supervision compulsory throughout the State, and Virginia is engaged in an active effort to improve the quality of its county supervision.

The effort made in the past two years to provide better educational codes in several of the States through the agency of educational commissions which should prepare bills for submission to their State Legislatures has thus far proved disappointing. While the labors of these commissions have promoted a wholesome consideration and discussion of educational improvements and have resulted in some valuable reports, their recommendations of definite measures of improvement in the great States of Pennsylvania, Illinois, and Iowa have failed to become laws. West Virginia, which was one of the pioneers in this movement, was more successful as regards legislative action. In the meantime new commissions, similar in character to those of the past two years, have been constituted in the States of Vermont and Connecticut.

The most notable measure of State reorganization within the year is that which has been carried into effect in Massachusetts. A new State Board of Education has been constituted by a consolidation of the old Board of Education, as it had come down from the days of Horace Mann, with the newer Commission on Industrial Education. This new Board consists of nine members appointed by the Governor and confirmed by the Council. It will appoint a Commissioner of Education for a five-year term, at a salary to be fixed by the Governor and Council. The Commissioner, in addition to the powers and duties formerly devolving upon the Secretary of the Board of Education, "shall have supervision of all educational work supported in whole or in part by the Commonwealth." Two Deputy Commissioners are also to be appointed, "one of whom shall be especially qualified to deal with industrial education." The act went into effect on the first day of July, 1909. It will be generally agreed that the new State Board, as constituted by the Governor and Council, is an able body, with manifest leanings toward the industrial side of education, but with fair representation also of education in its more general aspects.

As regards the substance and method of education, there are four movements which have noticeably gained in distinctness and headway in the course of the year; namely, those having to do with instruction in hygiene, with industrial education, with the educational bearings of the fine arts, and with training for the moral life.

The Tuberculosis Congress held at Washington in September last gave a fresh impetus to the endeavor to render the schools serviceable in the promotion of public health. This endeavor has found expression in so many forms and places that only the barest mention of a few must serve here as representative of many instances. Prizes were given by the Tuberculosis Congress for leaflets intended for the guidance of teachers in combating this one disease. The city of Boston has continued, with large success, the remarkably comprehensive programme of training for health upon which it entered two or three years ago. The account of this Boston movement which was presented at the recent meeting of the National Education Association at Denver excited warm interest, as did the parallel account of the health movement in the St. Louis schools. Colorado has provided for the inspection of all school-children in the State, with a view to detecting and correcting physical defects. In the Alaska school service, traveling physicians have, for the first time, been regularly employed to treat the native Eskimos and Indians in their sicknesses and teach them more wholesome ways of living. Outdoor schools, or "fresh-air schools," are now established or are in contemplation in at least eight of our American cities, the playground movement has been making substantial progress, and summer camps, both for boys and for girls, have become surprisingly numerous and beneficial. There can be no doubt that the anti-tuberculosis campaign is giving new point and force to the effort to render our education more wholesome in itself and a better promoter of public health.

The discussion of industrial education culminated in the recent meeting of the National Education Association, of which it was indeed the dominant note; and particularly in the presidential address of Mr. Lorenzo D. Harvey, the head of the Stout schools at Menominee, Wisconsin. President Harvey pointed out the necessity of giving to industrial education a wider scope than mere training for the processes of the trades, and offered some indication of the extreme complexity of the industrial school problem. The progress of the year has been in the direction of greater clearness in these matters. The actual establishment of public schools of trades has proceeded but slowly. Yet interest in such schools is well sustained. It is a significant fact that the American Federation of Labor has appointed a committee to report concerning trade education. A number of industrial fellowships supported by industrial concerns have been established at the University of Kansas. In the Fitchburg, Massachusetts, public schools a plan is on trial combining schooling with apprenticeship, somewhat after the manner of the well-known arrangement at the University of Cincinnati. Especial interest attaches to the effort, through "vocational committees" and other forms of organization, to render assistance to school and college graduates in choosing and entering a vocation. The plan has been tried in London, Birmingham, and Edinburgh, and it has now been undertaken at Boston with promise of good success. Under this arrangement a "vocational director" or "counselor" has been employed, having some connection with the "Boston - 1915" movement which embraces so many new projects for the good of the city.

On its agricultural side the industrial education movement has been stimulated by the inquiries and report of President Roosevelt's Commission on Country Life. This movement, in its larger aspects, proposes not merely the addition of trade instruction to the present school curriculum, but such an interweaving of industrial ideas with the ideas of general culture as shall modify our whole system of teaching. Such a purpose is nowhere more clearly manifest than in the new trend in rural education. It is an aim which of late has found its embodiment chiefly in the new rural high schools. Mississippi has made a beginning in the establishment of such schools under its new law of a year ago. Arkansas has now provided for public schools of agriculture in each of four districts into which the State has been divided. Minnesota has provided for agricultural departments in the graded schools of the State. The effort to secure the consolidation of rural schools, with provision for the transportation of pupils, has made substantial progress within the year. An unusually strong, concerted effort was made in the closing months of President Roosevelt's administration to secure the passage by Congress of the Davis bill providing for the encouragement of agricultural education in State normal schools and high schools by annual grants from the National treasury. This effort, however, like those which had preceded it, proved unsuccessful.

A third branch of industrial education, that dealing with the preparation of girls for the duties of the home, has been advanced within the year by the organization of the American Home Economics Association, which was incorporated on the 31st of December, 1908. This Association held a successful initial meeting in the city of Washington, and has now begun the issuance of an informing periodical publication. Throughout the country there is evidence of a rising interest in the special education of girls, and it is, indeed, doubtful whether any other part of our industrial education is now making more hopeful progress.

On the whole, the position of the fine arts in our educational curriculum is still unsatisfactory in the extreme, particularly when they are brought into contrast with the natural sciences. Two important conventions of the past year are significant of the endeavor which is making to place the art subjects upon a better footing in the schools. The first of these was the International Congress on Art Instruction, held in London in the month of August, 1908, at which the United States was ably represented by Mr. Henry T. Bailey, of Massachusetts, and Mr. Charles M. Carter, of Colorado. The American exhibit at this Congress called forth much favorable comment. It included an attractive and interesting volume on art instruction in the United States, prepared under the co-operation of several leading representatives of this branch of our education. At a meeting held in the city of Washington in the month of April, 1909, there was formed a Federation of the Art Societies of this country, which promises much for the increase of interest in this subject among our people. While its purpose is not primarily educational, its activities will be closely connected with the movement of art instruction in the schools.

No movement of the year calls for closer attention than that which represents the growing interest in moral education. The most striking features of this movement have been one convention and several publications. An International Moral Education Congress was held at London in September, 1908, which had to a marked degree the recognition of the education offices of the leading Western nations. The volume containing the papers presented at this Congress offers a comprehensive survey of the thought of the time concerning this, the most important aspect of education. Another survey of extraordinary interest published almost simultaneously with that of the Congress, but prepared independently, is a report of the International Committee on Moral Education, edited by Mr. Michael Sadler. These two works offer the most complete account which has yet appeared of moral education as its several aspects presented themselves to the first decade of the twentieth century. Numerous other publications have appeared in this field. The several meetings and publications of the Religious Education Association call for mention here, for it becomes increasingly manifest that that organization lays its prime emphasis on those ethical conceptions which afford a meeting-ground for all religious denominations.

The year has been significant in the field of international education, but only a few occurrences can be noted here.

A series of Latin-American Scientific Congresses, held in recent years, led up to the first Pan-American Scientific Congress, which was held in Santiago, Chile, in December last. The fact that our Republic was invited to join in this meeting with those of Latin America emphasized the purpose of its promoters to foster a Pan-American spirit in the study of American social conditions. This country sent a strong delegation to the Congress, where they met many of the leaders of South American thought. It was generally agreed that the meeting was highly successful. Steps were taken before its close toward the convening of a second Congress, of a similar character, in the year 1912, at the city of Washington.

The first steps in an exchange of lecturers between the United States and Scandinavian countries having proceeded in a highly satisfactory manner, the promoters of that exchange have now gone on to the organization of a Scandinavian-American Society. The first annual banquet of this Society was so successful an affair that the new Society may be regarded as fairly launched in safe waters. It would be hard to overestimate its possible usefulness in strengthening the bonds between the Scandinavian countries and the United States through the furtherance of a mutual understanding in affairs of education.

The governmental changes which have taken place at Peking have checked for a time the arrangements, which were well under way, looking to the employment of the remitted portion of the great indemnity fund in the education of Chinese youth at American institutions. It is, however, not deemed probable that this will prove more than a temporary setback in negotiations of so great importance and promise. Already the current of foreign attendance at American institutions, not only of Orientals but of those from all of the other continents, is setting in so strongly that it must be considered in any survey of international education tendencies. We owe much to the civilization of other nations, and the debt is every year increased; but every year we have more to offer them in turn, and it is gratifying to observe that they are not unmindful of this fact.

PHOTOGRAPH BY H. H. MOORE

FACTORY POEMS

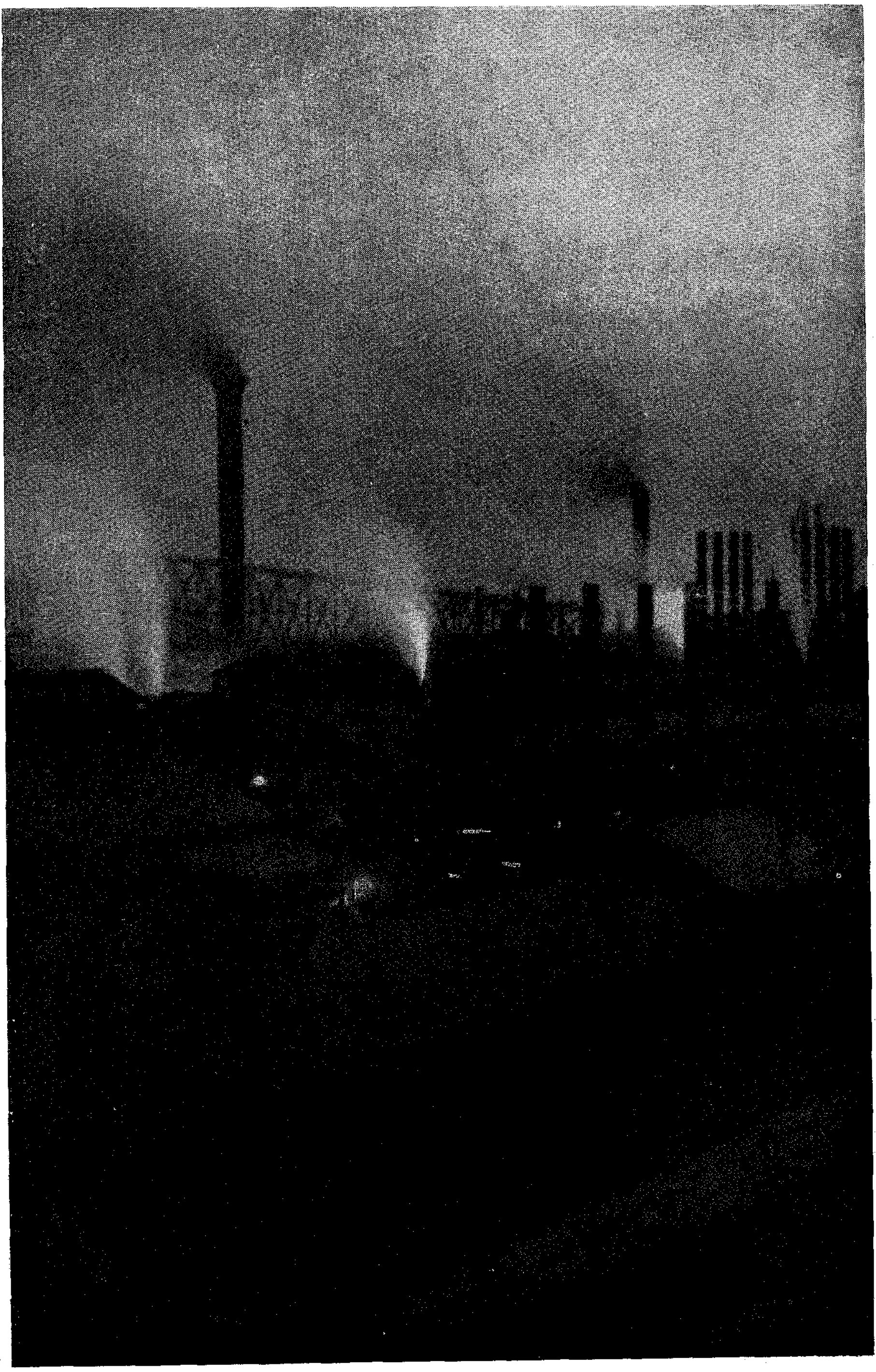
BY H. C. JUDSON

THE MACHINE SHOP

It seems a city roofed with iron and glass,
  With haze-deep reaches. Down the track between
Its gray steel buildings now doth slowly pass
  A train of freight cars. From each big machine
Rises a rhythmic sound that strives to charm
  The sense with meaning, while, with listless power,
Long, heat-blued shavings by its quiet arm
  Are curled from snoring metal, hour by hour.
How wide a little space is!—here in view
  Float the vast cities, vessel-peopled seas,
Great ships at wharves, Andean ranges blue,
  Prairies, plantations, hive-like factories;
For East to West that cutting tool doth knit,
Coldly unconscious, with each swing of it.

OVERTIME

All day the flowing belts clapped rhythmic hands,
  Broad-palmed, on whirling pulleys; subtle power
Pulsed through the brushes, till like instant brands
  They glowed and darkened; then the closing hour
Slackened the belts that ran with loosened grips
  And stopped; but ours, that we might not delay
Electric sinews built for Russia's ships,
  Swept on the while we added to our day.



PHOTOGRAPH BY H. H. MOORE

"NEW WORLDS ARE BEING FORMED"

Past midnight still the motors were in cry
Like wintry elves—scarce sleepy eyes could see
The gauging needle;—then, with cadent sigh,
They ceased and silence wrapped us utterly.
We step without the gate, and, lo, are drawn
Into the coming glory of the dawn.

THE FOUNDRY

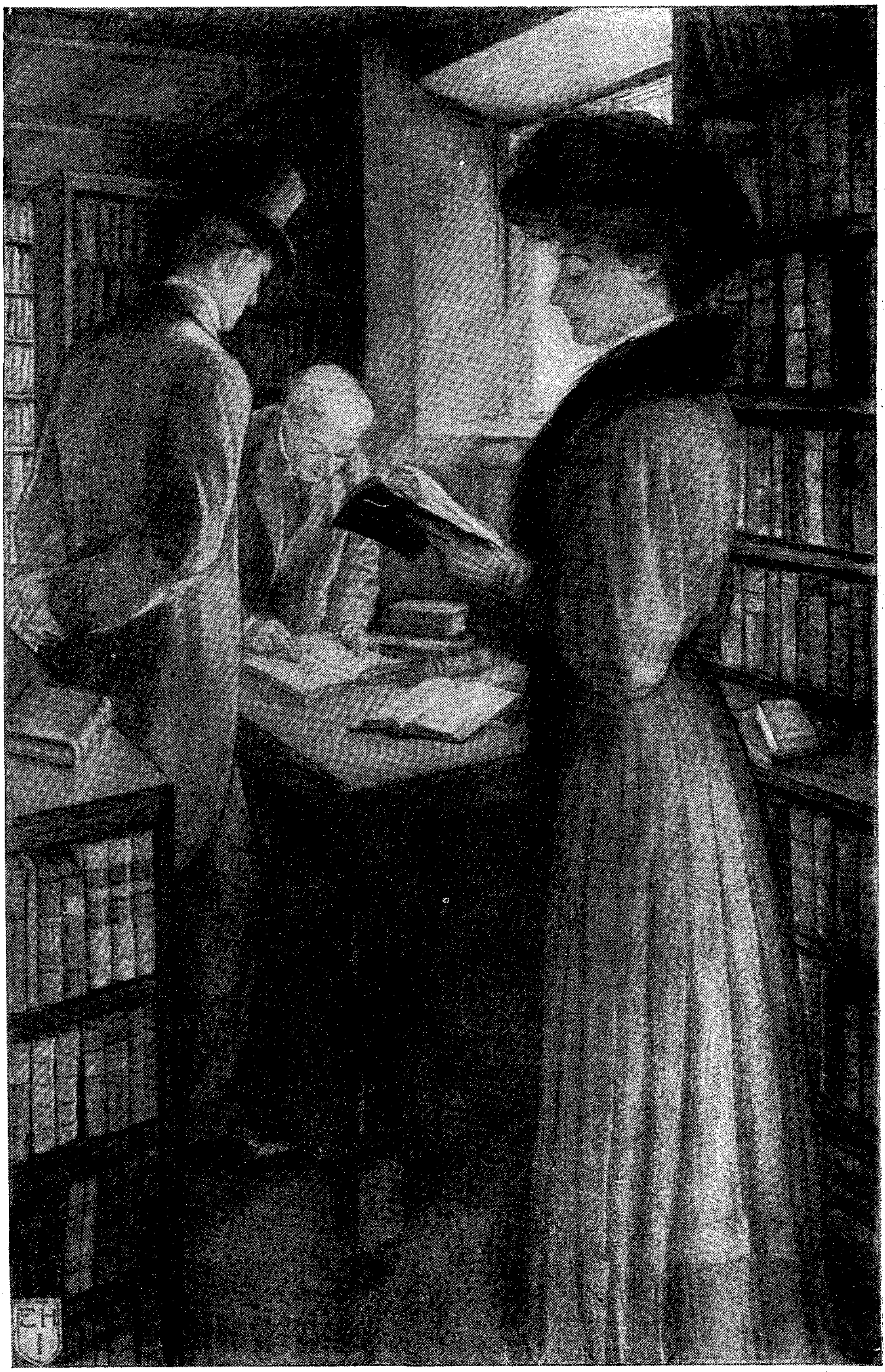
Ever the new! In this strange, littered place,
Volcanic, of gray drift and fires that roar,
New worlds are being formed by a young race
Of gods, who out of glowing vessels pour
New-molten iron, the old gods soon will claim;
For iron is nature's memory—it grips
Hard on to what it holds; but, when lithe flame,
The wrestler, bends back its fingers, slips
The treasure down, strange, living gold, that flows
Like streams of yellow light, while from it rise
Freed fancies—ere again the fingers close,
Bright fountain-jets of fiery butterflies;
And, lo, the old takes on the new desire
Of Prospero-Man, through Ariel, his fire.

THE END OF DAY

Until experience has come to guide,
The novice still his treadmill hours must pay;
So I, to dull mechanic labors tied,
Watched wearily to greet the end of day;
Then evening came: its quiet is a boon;
Its beauty is a miracle of rest—
One star is shining and the veiled new moon
Seems but a fairy dream in the dim west.
I pass out, with the others, through the gate—
Not wholly cleansed as yet from grime and soil—
Life's greatness, nearness, makes my heart elate;
For, one among ten thousand men who toil,
I might touch this one, that one, each would be
Somewhat myself, and it seems good to me.

DIVINE FIRE

Under continued noise and sweaty heat,
I asked, My soul, art thou content to lie
Pent up in narrow bounds that quickly beat
Earthward each eagle thought that longs to fly?
But quick a motion did my soul reprove;
It stirred me to look up and did reveal,
Through twelve strong men that bent as one to move
From lagging start a sluggish weighted wheel,
That life was bound that it itself might know,
That life was love, and love the fire divine
In poet and in man—from tautest bow
The fleetest arrow wings. Life's fiery wine
Defends itself, I said—earth sees the cup,
But heaven the element it ho'deth up.



DRAWN BY ELIZABETH HOWELL INGHAM

BEMERTON'S

Over Bemerton's[1]

By Edward Verrall Lucas

CHAPTER I

ONE TRAVELER RETURNS AND FINDS A HOME IN WESTMINSTER

"MR. FALCONER," said Naomi to Mrs. Duckie, "wants quiet, clean rooms and the simplest cooking. Rarely anything but breakfast, and that very light. It must be in this neighborhood, so as to be near Queen Anne's Gate."

Mrs. Duckie said that hers were the quietest rooms in London and almost the nearest to Queen Anne's Gate: *certainly* the nearest quiet rooms. As for her cooking, although she had of course in her time served up for dinner parties of ten or a dozen, when she was with Canon Lyme, she was famous for her small happetizing meals too. If Mr. Dabney was only up and dressed, we might ask him.

Mr. Dabney had the rooms above mine—or, I should say, above those which (as I could see) Naomi intended should be mine in about five minutes—but being a gentleman on the press who kept very late hours, he did not appear till nearly lunch time—all gentlemen who use their heads, said Mrs. Duckie, needing their full eight hours, if not nine. As for herself, she could do with six or seven; but Duckie wanted his full eight, and had them too, coming as he did from a sleepy stock. She had known him of a Saturday night when he had slep' for a good ten.

"I also like to get up late," I said, "but that is owing to my misfortune in being unable to sleep well. I suffer very badly from insomnia."

"Yes," said Naomi, "and that is one reason why I brought you first to these rooms, because of the advantage of living over a second-hand bookseller's shop. Don't you see that there will always be something to read? When you can't sleep," she hurried on, "and you are tired of all your own books, as one then is, you have only to get up, light a candle, slip on your dressing-gown" (Naomi's mind is all hopefulness and practical method), "and go down to the shop for as many others as you want. Because of course you will become friends with the bookseller directly. You always do."

"All very well; but how if the bookseller only rents the ground floor and basement and lives four miles away in Harringay with the key under his pillow? which as a matter of fact he does, for Mrs.—er—Mrs.—told me so while you were looking at the bath-room. What then, Naomi?"

"Oh, I don't think anything of that," she said; "why, he'll give you a duplicate key within a week. And look," she went on, "what splendid cupboards those are, and it's a Lambert grate too, and it's known that they throw the heat right out into the room" (Naomi has no skepticism in her, and she remembers so many advertisements), "and it is so convenient to have the bedroom and the bath-room lead out of each other. It is a good bath, too; the hot water comes at once."

"How long does it run hot?" I asked.

"Dear Kent," she cried, now as completely on the side of the landlady as if they were in partnership, "you are so suspicious. It keeps hot all the time. I tried it."

Mrs. Duckie corroborated. "There isn't another house within a mile," she said, "which lets rooms that has a bath-room like ours. It was put in by the landlord when he thought of living here himself, and then of course he had his accident and married the nurse and settled down at Hendon for life. And though I wish him nothing but happiness, it's an accident that I've found it in my heart to be thankful for, laying in that beautiful bath of a Saturday night."

"After the books and the bath-room," Naomi broke in, "the best thing is the corner position. The windows look right along two streets. Think how interesting that will be sometimes. Because I

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[1] Copyright, 1908, by the Macmillan Company.

shall put your table in the corner, so that you can look up from your reading and see out of both equally well."

I mentioned something about draughts.

"Oh, no," said Naomi; "there will be india-rubber piping put all round, and sandbags over the cracks."

"They are such a violent red," I said.

"Yes, of course, when you buy them," said Naomi, who thinks ahead by instinct, "but I shall cover them for you. I saw some stuff at Libnett's the other day. I think purple is the color for this room, and blue for the bedroom. Yes, purple and blue. I will send for a book of patterns at once, and we can choose them to-morrow morning when the light is good."

"But the 'Goat and Compasses' opposite," I said, determined to be as difficult as I could; "isn't that rather near?"

"Not a better conducted house in London," Mrs. Duckie at once broke in. "The landlord and the landlady are as nice a couple as God Almighty ever set behind a bar. He was butler to Lord Latimer, and she was the cook, and his Lordship left them each five hundred pounds. They've only been there eight months, and already the place is so changed you wouldn't know it. The difference between it now and what it used to be!" Mrs. Duckie raised her hands. "I assure you, miss," she said, "that if you had brought your—your—"

"Grandfather," I suggested.

"Oh, no, sir!" said Mrs. Duckie. "What a thing to say! Grandfather, indeed! Why, you're in your prime."

"Of course," said Naomi; "what rubbish you talk!"

"As I was saying," Mrs. Duckie continued, "if you had brought him to these rooms a year ago, and implored me on your bended knees to let him take them at twice the rent, I should have said no. My conscience wouldn't have permitted me to let them to a refined gentleman with insomnia and scholarly ways of life and relations in Queen Anne's Gate. I should have said no. But now—why, I might be living in the Little Cloisters at the Abbey again, it's so respectable and quiet."

"The sign of the 'Goat and Compasses,'" I remarked, "is said to be derived from the words, 'God encompasseth us.'"

"I shouldn't be surprised," said Mrs. Duckie, who at that moment was called away.

"Then you insist on my taking these rooms," I said to Naomi.

"No, Kent, not insist," she answered. "But they're really nice rooms. And central, too. You've only got to cross the bridge and you're all among your Clubs and everything else, and such a nice walk to lunch through the park among the ducks and cormorants. I should be miserable if you were in Jermyn Street with no compulsory nice walk at all. And you're close to us and the stores."

"Yes," I said, "and if ever I choose to go into Parliament, which any one may do to-day, how convenient! And how easy to become a Roman Catholic, with the new Cathedral so handy! And I might buy one of the Thames steamboats, which I am told are going very cheap, and keep it at Westminster Bridge."

Naomi laughed. She laughs at me now and then, not because she thinks I am particularly funny, but because she knows it makes me happier to think that I am thought funny. For Naomi takes things as they come, and, like most women, has no need of jokes. Brightness and sense appeal to her more than all fantasy, wit, or cleverness. People who think ahead are bound to be rather automatically receptive, and, as a matter of fact, her mind was already turning over the patterns; but the undercurrent of sweetness always running in her nature prompted her little kindly laugh. Deceptive, no doubt, but innocently so. A gentle hypocrisy is not only the basis but the salt of civilized life.

"The only objection left," I said, "is the name of the landlady. Do I really understand you to say that it is Duckie?"

Naomi laughed outright. This struck her as being really funny. "But, my dear Kent," she said, "you would not refuse good rooms because of the landlady's name?"

"Oh, yes, I would," I replied. "That's exactly what I would do."

"Not when all you have to do," said Naomi, "is to call her something else? One of our parlormaids was named Victoria, but we called her Jane. You could call Mrs. Duckie Landlady or Housekeeper."

At this moment Mrs. Duckie returned, and I took the rooms without another word.

"Mr. Bemerton will be very pleased," she said. "Mr. Bemerton has the book-shop downstairs. He asks me every day if I have a tenant yet, and he has been hoping it would be some one who is fond of reading."

As a matter of fact (although I did not tell Naomi so, wishing her to think that it was all her doing), as a matter of fact, I had made up my mind directly I saw the book-shop underneath that, unless there were very imposing obstacles, I should make these rooms my home. My feet have always led me naturally to second-hand booksellers' shops, and after thirty years of exile in such a bookless city as Buenos Aires, the idea of being so close to one of these little terrestrial heavens was too much for me. Besides, think of the name—Bemerton—with the suggestion of holy Mr. Herbert in it.

That was my fate, I knew swiftly (as one does know his fate at fifty-five). I was to live over Bemerton's.

Having arranged to send in some paperhangers and painters at once, we bade Mrs. Duckie farewell and descended the stairs to the street; but I would not depart until I had bought a book for luck. Being a profound believer in the humor if not the reason of chance, I told Naomi that from the first shelf on the left hand that came as high as my heart I would buy two books: for her, the twenty-ninth book from the doorway (her age is twenty-nine); for me the fifty-fifth;—no matter what the subject and no matter what the price.

And what do you think they were? Naomi's, by curious and very pleasant fortune, was "Walton's Lives" (with holy Mr. Herbert of Bemerton shedding a gentle light over all); and mine was a fat volume in a yellow paper cover, lying on its side, for which I had to pay two solid English pounds.

Naomi's face was a picture of disapproval as I produced the money; for she is no believer in fate and no supporter of supine acquiescence, wise receptivity, and all the rest of it. Naomi believes in self-help and courage and in getting one's books from the London Library. But when she saw the title her expression changed from disapproval to positive grief, for it ran thus: "A Chinese Biographical Dictionary, by Herbert A. Giles, London and Shanghai, 1898."

"My dear Kent," she cried, "how very wrong of you to do these silly superstitious things! Whatever can you find to interest you in Chinese biography?"

"My dear young lady," said the bookseller, "you make a great mistake. The gentleman has bought what is at once one of the best and the least known books in this shop. If he looks at it to-night, however casually, and does not agree with me, I will cheerfully give him two pounds again for it to-morrow morning."

Directly Naomi heard this she brightened again—for was there not a bargain in the air?—and off we trotted to Queen Anne's Gate in very good humor, talking furniture and decoration all the way, with a word as to the promising and unusual business habits of Mr. Bemerton, and a few remarks from me on the favorite topic of the kindness of Chance when one really gives her her head and refrains from even the shadow of authority.

To this Naomi replied that she thought, all things considered, that I had better get most of the things at the Stores rather than go all the way to Tottenham Court Road.

CHAPTER II

INTRODUCING THE READER TO MR. AND MRS. WYNNE, A COUNTY CRICKETER, A SUFFRAGETTE, AN HEIR OF THE AGES, AND AN ANGEL

Queen Anne's Gate, where my stepsister and her family live, is, I think, save for the lack of sun, the most attractive street in London. My stepsister's house backing on the Park, the windows on that side pick up some kindly oblique rays in the afternoon, but in the morning they are sunless. My stepsister, who is an optimist, says, however, that she would as soon see from her rooms London lit by the sun as have the sun herself.

Certainly she has made her own especial sanctuary very charming, and the view over the Park and the water to the cool line of Carlton House Terrace and the gray mist above is very soothing. To the right is the half-smoked, half-gleaming stone-work of the Government offices.

It is a quiet spot, undisturbed by shattering traffic. One sits here within sound of the greater music of the city, but so far removed from it that the cries of the water-fowl and the cooing of outrageously fat pigeons come soothingly to the ear. Now and then a bugle sounds in the neighboring barracks. Big Ben booms the hours. In the room at the top of the house which I occupied on my return from abroad while Naomi was scouring the neighborhood for a lodging for me, I used, as I lay awake at night, to hear the water-fowl so clearly that at first it seemed like old days in Norfolk. Now, it is a circumstance worth recording that after Norfolk there is no place where one can so certainly count upon watching the sure strong flight of wild duck as St. James's Park.

It is very interesting, after an intercourse with a family which for some years has been carried on wholly by letter, with perhaps an occasional interchange of photographs, to be set down suddenly in its midst and become one of it. My stepsister of course came more or less naturally enough to me, for we had been friends when we were young, before I went abroad. Moreover, she requires no learning; she is always complete and the same. But her husband I had never seen, and as for the children (as I thought of them), they were just names and anecdotes and faded *cartes de visite* to me. I, however, thanks to their mother's loyalty, was more to them, for they had been told much about my young days, and I have no doubt that portions at least of my infrequent letters were read aloud as they arrived.

The initial difficulty—by no means a small one—of what I was to be called having been slowly overcome (myself objecting as strongly to the Uncle Kent which they seemed to favor as they did to the Kent pure and simple which I wanted), all went very smoothly, and the family quickly dropped company manners and showed me what it really was. Not that the difference was very marked, but a difference of course there always is—company manners being for the most part a kind of sandpaper that removes the asperities (and occasionally the attractions) of personality.

They are all very affectionate, but at the same time they all have their idiosyncrasies and cherish them.

There are (as one says) two boys and two girls; but the boys are twenty-seven and twenty-five, and the girls twenty-nine and twenty-one. Naomi, the eldest, is the quiet head of the house, for my stepsister has poor health and takes things easily, and it is understood that she must be saved from anxieties and trials. Naomi, therefore, is the buffer state not only between her mother and the kitchen, but between her mother and the world.

Drusilla when I first arrived was a Slade student, a suffragette, and beyond correction or even instruction on any point under the sun. She wore a badge bearing the words "Defiance, not Defence." Drusilla is very pretty, but Naomi, I think, is beautiful. It is, however, Drusilla who wins notice. Naomi's beauty is for a riper judgment, since the better you know her the more beautiful she is. I thought of Ceres directly I saw her, and the impression grows. If I were an artist I would paint her so. She has the steady level gaze that I think of as that goddess's; she loves all little helpless things, and all little helpless things love her; she leaves nothing quite where it is, but stimulates and nourishes it. And yet to compare Naomi with Ceres is not doing her full justice, for it takes no count of her sympathetic imagination or her readiness for fun. Ceres the goddess, I take it, might have been the dullest woman in real life.

Naomi, although she could not be called clever and certainly is not witty, is so full of what, to save much language, one might call womanliness, and the best womanliness, as to suggest profound sanity. If I had to describe this gift in a single word, I should say acceptivity. Those of us who are born critical and exacting approach nothing quite simply: we disapprove or we approve, and in so doing lose not only time but equanimity. But to Naomi's serene, sane mind the world has to be accepted as it is, and therefore she is always the same. Not that she considers everything perfect, but she has an instinctive realization of the inevitability of imperfection which keeps her contented—or, at any rate, prevents querulous discontent.

Naomi's sweet and candid mind, without poring over the matter at all, has, one feels, submitted life and all its phenomena to a reasonable evaluation. She understands: in a word, accepts. It is indeed a special prerogative of even stupid women to do this simply. The last thing that men learn about women is how transparent and natural they really are in all the essentials, our delay being due largely to our own want of imagination and not a little to the circumstances that we are brought up to expect freakishness, insincerity, and mischief. Proverbial lore, the testimony of so much literature, and the whole tendency of national facetiousness run that way. And yet few intelligent men individually would support it from their own knowledge, and most would say that among their least admirable and most ridiculous moments were those which they had once spent in protecting their wives or sweethearts (to use a better word than fiancées) from possibilities of offense in public places. Women are far nearer nature than men: so near, indeed, that one suspects that the inventor of most of the superficial proprieties was not Mrs. Grundy but her husband.

Naomi has no vocation. The eight years intervening between her birth and that of Drusilla made all the difference, and it is as natural for the elder sister never to have learned, say, typewriting, as it is for the younger to learn painting in Gower Street. But Naomi is by far the busier. She is, indeed, always employed, either indoors or out. She does the shopping, decides the menu, writes most of the letters, engages servants, and pays the calls.

Those are her family duties. Her own tastes run in the direction of what is called charity, but to them she herself would never give that word. The number of her pensioners (and I might say subjects or worshipers) no one probably will ever know. They are not by any means all in want of material help, the only benefaction she offers beneath many roofs being the bounty of her smile and cheerfulness. She makes a point, for example, of retaining knowledge of the Queen Anne's Gate servants after they leave, which they do only to be married and have fat and happy babies with punctuality and despatch for Miss Naomi to play with and befriend. There are three such servants at this moment in various parts of London whose babies are visited regularly; but Frank's twins naturally come first. Then there is a hospital at which Naomi attends, and a girls' club of which she is the treasurer; and of course she has a retinue of "chars" and sewing-women.

The boys are Frank and Lionel. Frank is the only one that is married, and he lives in a tiny house in Barton Street with his wife and his twins. He is at present a journalist, but all kinds of books are to come from him. Lionel is at the Bar, but not yet has he pleaded a cause, largely, I fancy, on account of the British solicitor's unwillingness to believe in the zeal or capacity of a Middlesex fast scorer (for Lionel plays for that county), and partly because his grandmother's generosity has made it so absurdly possible for Lionel to neglect his duties.

Frank I like immensely, for he is quiet and kind and humorous, but Lionel is more caustic and impatient than one wants, and he is also a shade too voluble upon games. He may be said to live for them; and, as with most men who do so, his yawns come with the dusk. Cricket I too adore, and we have this passion in common; but Lionel is not interested in the past, and that, of course, is where all my cricket lies. He is, however, going to take me to see him play, and I dare say I shall soon learn enough about the new men not to bore him. Into golf I cannot follow him; partly because I have never played, and partly because I like socialism in games, and the idea of employing a caddie will always be unpleasant to me. Lionel cannot naturally accept this point of view, and so few other golfers that I know are able to do so that I have come to the conclusion that the golfing temperament is essentially aristocratic—a feudal inheritance—the property exclusively of those who can see nothing absurd or even degrading in the spectacle of powerful frivolous men being followed by boys of burden.

With my stepsister I was of course quickly at home; but with her husband, Alderley Wynne, K.C., I shall never really be comfortable. Beside his clear, comprehensive, legal, synthetic mind, accustomed to see the end at the same moment that it sees the beginning, generalizing swiftly and usually accurately, my intellectual edges appear so very ragged and indistinct, and my hesitancies with regard to right and wrong so cowardly and anarchical. Moreover, he does not understand how any man can voluntarily expatriate himself except for gain, and I have come back so little better off than I left. Alderley likes a man to make either money or reputation; he is impatient of all who stand still. Stuff must in due course be succeeded by silk in life as well as at the Bar, he holds. I figure as a stationary man, which is only one degree less reprehensible than a retrograde man. None the less, since he is devoted to his wife in a very beautiful, attentive way, and she is fond of me, and I stand for her relation (although I am, of course, no kin to her really), even although his critical judgment tells him that I have failed, his heart and house are open to me.

It is amusing to watch him with his daughters, for although he disapproves of almost every word that Drusilla says, yet his passion for intellectual activity makes him secretly far prouder of her than of Naomi, whom he loves truly enough, but is inclined rather to group with mere creatures of instinct.

Naomi threw out signals of understanding at once and took me under her charge, as I have already shown. You leave it to me, she seemed to say, evidently looking upon me as a foreigner in need of help and instruction at every turn. Unmarried girls of twenty-nine, if they have not grown embittered (as they are too apt to do), can be very administrative and protective. The maternal feeling, I suppose. With Drusilla, whose blood circulates more in the brain, I have not hit it off so well, although we are quite friendly. She so clearly looks upon me pityingly as a trifler and in a sense an ignoramus (for I had never even heard of John), and she is not yet old enough to see that England and its needs can perhaps be as well, if not better, studied from abroad than when one is in the midst. The difference between Naomi and Drusilla is that Drusilla asks, Naomi gives. Not the least remarkable thing in this wonderful world in which we grope and have our being is the amazing differences that can exist in the children of the same parents.

With the exception of Frank, the family seems to be incorrigibly celibate. But of course at every moment lifelong decisions to be single are being overturned, and one never knows. Drusilla now, I feel, might easily follow some such remark as "Please pass the salt" with the statement, made equally coolly, that she was engaged. If so, it would probably be to a Fabian with long hair, a blue flannel collar, and a red tie, or some youthful artist whose genius carries with it a perpetual dispensation from soap and razor. All her friends seem to be young men of these two brands, who like drawing to be ugly and poetry to be Irish. I meet her now and then in St. James's Park with a retinue of them, and we stand on the bridge and exchange views of life for a few moments or draw each other's attention to the light over Whitehall and the color of London. Then they move off, a little as if they were guests for the Last Supper, with their brown beards and blue collars, and Drusilla and I walk to Queen Anne's Gate together.

They are all simple good fellows, in spite of their very patent atheisms and nihilisms and solemn vows to be married either without a ceremony at all or in a registry office; but I don't think our little Drusilla is for any of them. For this new comradeship between young men and young women is not making for marriage, especially among the bisexual, as to a certain extent most artists and revolutionaries are.

One other member the family may be said to have: Mr. Adolphus—or Dollie—Heathcote, once a law pupil of Alderley's, who is continually dropping in in the evening, and is on the best terms with himself and every one: a very agreeable, ornamental person. When it was the fashion to present me with contributions of furniture or knickknacks for my rooms, Dollie, who seems to have an infallible scent for everything that is, in his own phrase, dodgy, and who lights his cigarettes with a pocket spirit-lamp that would not be out of place in the "Arabian Nights," gave me a clock on a new design which dispenses with a dial but records the hours and minutes on little numbered labels. These labels are flipped away by an invisible agency one by one as they expire, and are for one's comfort almost too much like performers in a somber moral drama, illustrating the flight of time and the approach of annihilation. Dollie, however, I am sure, has no such thoughts. "A top-hole idea," he called it.

CHAPTER III

THE HAUNTS OF MEN REVISITED AND THE FIRST BEMERTONIAN NUGGET

My first few days over Bemerton's were a dream of joy and liberty. I am happy enough still (my nature is happy), but in those first few days I was realizing the desire of half a lifetime—I was in the dovecote, so to speak, that all my thoughts had been homing to, day and night, for years and years.

How often had I awakened and lain awake for hours, powerless to sleep again with all London in my head—not only its sights and sounds, but the scents of it. Latterly, when the date of my release was fixed and grew nearer, this small-hour excitement had so intensified that I began to fear brain-fever, and indeed at the end nothing but drugs had saved me; but the voyage put things right: once again the sea washed away—as who says? is it not Lucretius?—the ills of man.

At my stepsister's I was in a kind of trance. It was all so strange and unreal, and also there, even if subconsciously, I played the voluptuary, the epicure, and postponed the true rapture to the last, thinking that I would not begin to realize all the best anticipations until my rooms were my own—until once again I was my own master, as one never is in any one else's house. Dreams of London liberty that were dreamed alone should be realized alone; and so, although Naomi and I went everywhere, and I tasted many of the pleasures I had meditated upon, there was, as it were, a veil between them and my sensorium, not to be lifted until I was free once more and the obligations of a grateful guest were removed. Dear Naomi, I think, understood, and hastened accordingly in her search for rooms.

At first this perfect irresponsibility in my city of delight was almost too much: I was in danger of another breakdown. Sleep I could not. I roamed London from west to east, from south to north. I drifted wherever the impulse took me. I was intoxicated with humanity—bemused by people. I stood for hours on the bridges watching the tugs and the barges. I stood for hours in Farringdon Street at this barrow and that.

I had no method: I boarded buses for the docks, and never got beyond the stalls of Butchers' Row. I set out in the morning for Highgate, and by evening was still in the Charing Cross Road. I accepted invitations to dinner, and what time the entrée was being served I might be seen through the steam of sausage and mashed dining in a small eating-house. I started to pay calls on old friends, and wandered to the National Gallery. I read the advertisements of the best plays, and found myself in the Middlesex. I meditated Hampstead Heath, and instead inhaled invigorating draughts of naphtha in the New Cut. I bought a ticket for Queen's Hall, and allowed a melodrama in the Mile End Road to play fast and loose with my emotions.

But I had my disappointments too. It was too often not the London of my dreams. My dreams had taken no account of change. The Piccadilly I had visualized so long and so longingly was the Piccadilly of 1875—how different from this! My Strand was a Strand on which no County Council had wreaked its zeal. One of my favorite haunts as a youth had been Clare Market—that Hogarthian oasis—and Clare Market has passed forever; and who can lay his hand upon his heart and say that the Charing Cross Road is any real substitute for the street of Holy Well? That that area was insanitary and is better away has nothing to do with it. The true Londoner cares no straw for sanitation. He thrives on ill conditions.

I swear to you that through my heaven blow pungent clouds of sulphurous metropolitan smoke—such as we breathed in perfection years ago between Portland Road and King's Cross and between Blackfriars and Charing Cross. Where are they now? The higher slopes of Snowdon are hardly more free from grime than the ladylike highway into which electricity has converted the underground.

London's other new means of rapid transit were a disappointment too. We have motor cars in Buenos Aires, but I was not prepared for such a capture of the streets as I found. For how many nights before I came away did colored omnibuses in full sail fill my dreams in irresistible onset! That was London. The motor bus has its onset too, but it has none of the old rollick. It comes rigidly towards you, immense and terrifying. It does not sway nor roll. It wears the inflexible, pitiless air of progress. It is Juggernaut. How human and genial was the bus!

But among all the London phantasmagoria that had flickered before my sleeping and waking and dozing eyes the hansom cab was, I think, the most constant. I used to hear the horse's bell. . . . I had never forgotten my first hansom ride. Does any one forget it? My next—my second first hansom ride, so to say—was to be as memorable. I thought about it absurdly. I remembered the sense of comfort with which one settled down into the seat and closed the flaps and then composed one's self to watch London unfold. . . . But I found the motor cab the master of the streets. The hansom was still there, but not the hansom that I had known. The dashing driver was gone, the knowing fellow with a straw in his mouth, and a coat with large buttons, and a raffish tall hat on the side of his head. The hansom driver to-day is more like the growler driver of the past: a beaten man. I am sorry for him, and so long as I am not in a hurry I will climb into his vehicle as of old—that is, until it disappears, as I suppose it must. And what then? In my youth old hansoms when they died went to Oxford. Where will they go to-day?

But when all is said, the London that one most desired in such an exile as mine was the London of winter. London on a fine November evening at, say, six o'clock, after Christmas has been signaled, when there is an edge on the air and an indigo mist in the streets and the shops are all lighted. The return home to a bright fire under these conditions, with the evening paper or a new book or magazine! It was a simple ideal, but it carried extraordinary comfort and satisfaction with it.

Slippers . . .

I used to meditate on it for hours.

What a deal of pleasant undress repose must be missed by the fashionable! How poor an exchange are dress boots for soft slippers, a stall for an armchair, and (I myself would add) a play for a book!

That reminds me that I must tell you about my first Bemerton purchase, the Chinese Biographical Dictionary. Mr. Bemerton was right: it is a treasure. I only nibbled at it at first, opening at random and reading a life here and there—there are 2,579 lives in it altogether—and I was never disappointed. And then I began to take it seriously, and now I know something of its merits and for a while am measuring mankind by a Chinese standard.

It is the model of biographical dictionaries. I have long possessed our own Dictionary of National Biography, in how many weighty volumes? Sixty-two, including the Errata; but after the dry epigrammatic conciseness of Dr. Giles it is unreadable. To this sage appraiser of Chinese genius and address all meritorious men come alike—whether statesmen, cynics, sorcerers, or saints. He never questions; he merely puts on record in brief credulous sentences their characters and deeds. When all is said, it is, I suppose, their imperturbability and saturnine humor that are the most engaging qualities of the Chinese. They could not have found a better celebrant, or one more in tune with themselves, than Dr. Giles. He sets down everything gravely, and is as kind to the supernatural as to the natural. The sole qualification for admission into the Gilesian Valhalla is merit.

The book's brevity is its great charm. It was Henri Taine, I think, who said that there was no volume he could not compress into a chapter, and no chapter that would not go into a sentence. Dr. Giles has carried out Taine's thrasonical brag. There is no Chinese lifetime, however crowded and illustrious, that he cannot pack into a paragraph or a page. Nor does anything strike one as wanting.

One could do with more, of course, and yet who would have the olive larger? There is no blemish on this work save its prohibitive weight as a bed book, and that I have overcome by cutting it into four pamphlets.

I find a disdain for worldly advantage among these pagan Celestial philosophers that makes a more reasonable ideal for some of our Western plutocrats to-day than many that are placed before them in the professional pulpit. A few Englishmen have had a similar whimsical unworldliness, but they are few and far between. I imagine that J. K. Stephen had, for one, and the Shelley that emerges from certain of Hogg's pages. A glittering example of the humorous romantic detachment and carelessness of public opinion that I mean is Chang-Chih-Ho, of the eighth century A.D., who spent his time in angling, but used no bait, his object not being to catch fish. When Lu-Yü asked him why he roamed about, Chang's answer was instant: "With the Empyrean as my home, the bright moon my constant companion, and the four seas my inseparable friends—what mean you by *roaming?*" and when a friend offered him a comfortable home instead of his poor boat, he replied, "I prefer to follow the gulls into cloud-land rather than bury my ethereal self beneath the dust of the world." Isn't that fine?

There should certainly be a Chang-Chih-Ho Society. The spread of such roseate impracticableness would do no harm at all. Indeed, the crying need for the moment in this country, as in America, is a gospel of poverty to cope with the gospel of riches that is vitiating society. Sufficient exemplars for preachers of this new evangel could probably be found in Dr. Giles's pages alone, but, if others were needed, there is always the wise and silent India in reserve. Yang-Ksiung, a poet of the first century B.C. (note the period), would be one high among them. On the completion of Yang's most famous work, "a wealthy merchant of the province was so struck by its excellence that he offered to give 100,000 *cash* if his name should merely be mentioned in it. But Yang answered with scorn that a stag in a pen or an ox in a cage would not be more out of place than the name of a man with nothing but money to recommend him in the sacred pages of a book."

Another recluse, Cháo-Fu, who flourished B.C. 2357, took to the branches of the trees to be removed as far as possible from contact with the world. "Yao offered him the throne, but he declined and immediately went and washed his ears to free them from the defilement of such worldly contamination," nor would he let his calves drink of the water.

Not the least interesting and instructive thing about this work is its record of virtue, genius, and fortitude of not only a non-Christian people but to a large extent, as we understand it, a non-civilized people.

Another eminent pagan was Chang-Chēn-Chou, of the seventh century A.D., who, on being appointed Governor of Shu-chou, "proceeded to his old home and spent ten days in feasting his relatives and friends. Then, calling them together, he gave to each a present of money and silk, and took leave of them with tears in his eyes, saying, 'We have had this pleasant time together as old friends. To-morrow I take up my appointment as Governor; after that we can meet no more.' The result was an impartial and successful administration."

Of Chēn-Shih, A.D. 104–187, who was also famous for his probity, a pleasant story is told. On one occasion "when a thief had hidden himself among the roof-beams, he quietly called together his sons and grandsons, and after a short moral lecture pointed up at the thief, saying, 'Do not imitate this gentleman on the beam.' The latter was so touched that he came down and asked forgiveness, promising to lead an honest life for the future, and departing joyfully with a present of money."

Another sage was Sun-Fang, of the twelfth century A.D., an Imperial physician, who called himself the Hermit of the Four Stops. He explained this to mean that when he had taken his fill of plain food, he stopped; when he had put on enough plain clothes to keep himself warm, he stopped; when he had realized a fair proportion of his wishes, he stopped; and finally, after growing old, free from covetousness or envy, he would also be prepared to stop.

With him may be coupled Ping-Chi,

who died B.C. 55, at the time that our tight little island was being invaded by the Romans. "In 63 he was ennobled as Marquis, and in 59 became Minister of State. The following story is told of his acumen. One spring day he came upon a crowd of brawlers, among whom were several killed and wounded; but he took no notice of them and passed on. Soon afterwards he saw an ox panting violently, and at once showed the greatest concern. 'For,' as he explained, 'the brawlers can be left to those whose business it is to deal with such matters; whereas an ox panting in spring means that heat has come before its time, and that the seasons are out of joint, thus opening a question of the deepest national interest."

Among the philosophers I like Yin-Hao, who, when he failed to grapple with the rebellion of Yao-Hsiang, was impeached for incompetence and cashiered. "He took his punishment without complaint, except that he spent his days in writing with his finger in the air the four words 'Oh! oh! strange business!'" Sang-Wei-Han had philosophy of another kind: "He was short of stature, with a long beard; but used to stand before a mirror and say, 'One foot of face is worth seven of body.' At the same time, he was so hideously ugly that the very sight of him made people sweat, even in midwinter."

Chinese thoroughness is also worth some attention in the West. Look at Chi-Cháng. Chi-Cháng was an archer who arrived at proficiency by painful measures. "He began by lying for three years under his wife's loom, in order to learn not to blush. He then hung up a louse, and gazed at it for three years, until at length it appeared to him as big as a cart wheel. After this, he is said to have been able to pierce through the heart with an arrow." Another conscientious model was Liu-Hsün, who died A.D. 521, and "who read all night, having a lighted twist of hemp arranged in such a way as to burn his hair if he began to nod from drowsiness."

Chang I, who died B.C. 310, a political adventurer, and eventually Prime Minister, had a certain dry humor. "It is recorded that in his early life, after a banquet at the house of a Minister of Ch'u, at which he had been present, he was wrongly accused of stealing some valuable gem, and was very severely beaten. On his return home, he said to his wife, 'Look and see if they have left me my tongue.' And when his wife declared that it was safe and sound, he cried out, 'If I still have my tongue, that is all I want.'"

Here is humor again: Tung-Fang-So, a censor in the first century B.C., "on one occasion drank off some elixir of immortality which belonged to the Emperor, and the latter in a rage ordered him to be put to death. But Tung-Fang-So smiled and said, 'If the elixir was genuine, your Majesty can do me no harm; if it was not, what harm have I done?'"

Of Chao-Kao, who died B.C. 207, a famous rebel, we have this sinister variant of Andersen's story of the Emperor's new clothes: "Tradition says that on one occasion, in order to discover which of the officials at the Court of Hu-Hai, the Second Emperor, would be likely to defy him, he presented the Emperor with a stag, saying that it was a horse. His Majesty, bewildered by the absurdity of the statement, appealed to his surrounding courtiers. Those who were bold enough to say that it was a stag were marked down by Chao-Kao for destruction."

Are they not an interesting company? Let me end this taste by the celebration of one of the most attractive of all—Ch'ĕn-Tsun. Ch'ĕn-Tsun, who died A.D. 25, was distinguished as a letter-writer, but still more famous for his love of good company. That, however, is nothing; the characteristic that fills me with pleasure is the following: "He used to keep his guests with him, even against their will, by throwing the linch-pins of their carriages into a well." What a delightful trait—or, rather, habit!

The Glory of the Northwest

By Stephen B. L. Penrose

President of Whitman College

THE Easterner who visits the Alaska-Yukon-Pacific Exposition at Seattle will find many surprises, but no disappointments. The typical Westerner, as conceived in the Eastern mind, is a flamboyant individual, loud in his self-assertion, arrogant, and grasping. He is regarded as a reckless swashbuckler, careless of art as of law; a lover of bigness, and incapable of distinguishing between bigness and greatness; unreliable as to facts—in fine, a crude, good-souled, but noisy giant, with an ineffable local conceit and no sense of proportion. If an exposition is an indication of the character of the people who maintain it, how different is the Westerner in reality from this customary Eastern conception of him!

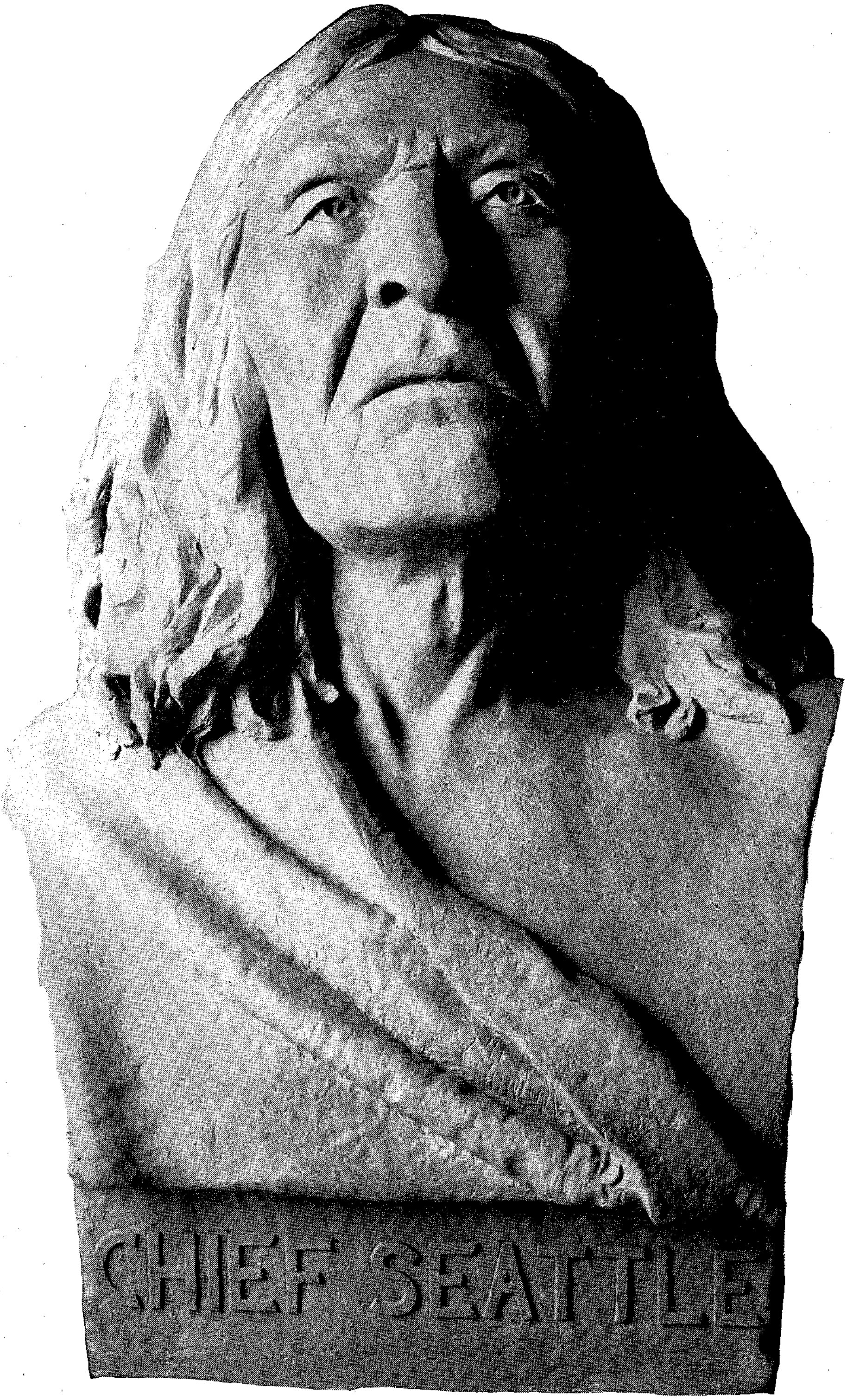
The visitor at Seattle finds an Exposition which represents, first of all, a remarkable degree of self-restraint. Instead of aiming at bigness and trying to establish a fair which should be a sort of omnibus, he finds that the managers have set definite limits to their undertaking, and, just because of these self-imposed limitations, have achieved a most remarkable success. The riotous Westerner, careless of art and of law, is revealed here as distinctively a lover of the beautiful and as a respecter of the orderly. In this Exposition, held in the far Northwest, the sale of intoxicating liquors has been expressly forbidden, for the first time in any great exposition. When the campus of the University of Washington was selected two years ago for the site of the fair, the legal restriction forbidding the sale of liquor within two miles of the University was definitely understood and accepted. Equally striking is the fact that no great historical event is commemorated, nor is the name of any individual glorified. Rather the fair is an epitome of the progress of the common people, a record of the achievements of the nameless many who in the last fifty years have poured westward over the Rocky Mountains and founded a great empire on the shores of the Pacific. It is true that a bronze statue of William H. Seward will be dedicated in midsummer, but the Exposition is not in Seward's honor.

Its purpose is to set forth to the world the natural resources of the lands bounding the North Pacific Ocean and to exhibit the civilization which is already established there. The grasping Westerner has asked no aid from the United States Government for this Exposition, but has gone into his own pockets for the money necessary for its establishment. The Government, to be sure, makes a magnificent exhibition, the costliest and most comprehensive which it has ever made, but it contributed not one cent to the fair itself. This will be a happy surprise to the Easterner who thinks that the West must always be dependent upon the East for its capital. Happy also will be the Eastern visitor in observing the appreciation of beauty, both in art and in nature, which is so conspicuously manifested in the building of the fair. The landscape architects, Olmsted Brothers, had an unrivaled opportunity in the lay of the land and the magnificent panorama of lakes and mountains, which they have shown rare skill in revealing. Where two years ago was the forest primeval is now a city of ivory-tinted palaces, harmonious in architecture and delicately subdued in coloring, set in the heart of the great woods with every aid of the landscape gardener's art to beautify the scene. Great avenues through the forest have been cut and beautified with lawns and flowers to give vistas of the snowy line of the Cascades to the east, of the splendid dome of Mount Rainier rising to the south over the smiling waters of Lake Washington, and to the west the jagged sky-line of the Olympics bounding the blue waters of America's Mediterranean, Puget Sound. It is odious to make comparisons, but I doubt if ever before so rare a combination of natural beauty with artistic excellence could be found. When the visitor, tired of watching the crowds that continually throng the Government building, or of studying the revelations of the Alaska exhibit, lifts his eyes to the horizon, he finds rest for his soul, and a great calm, in the vision of the eternal loveliness which surrounds him.

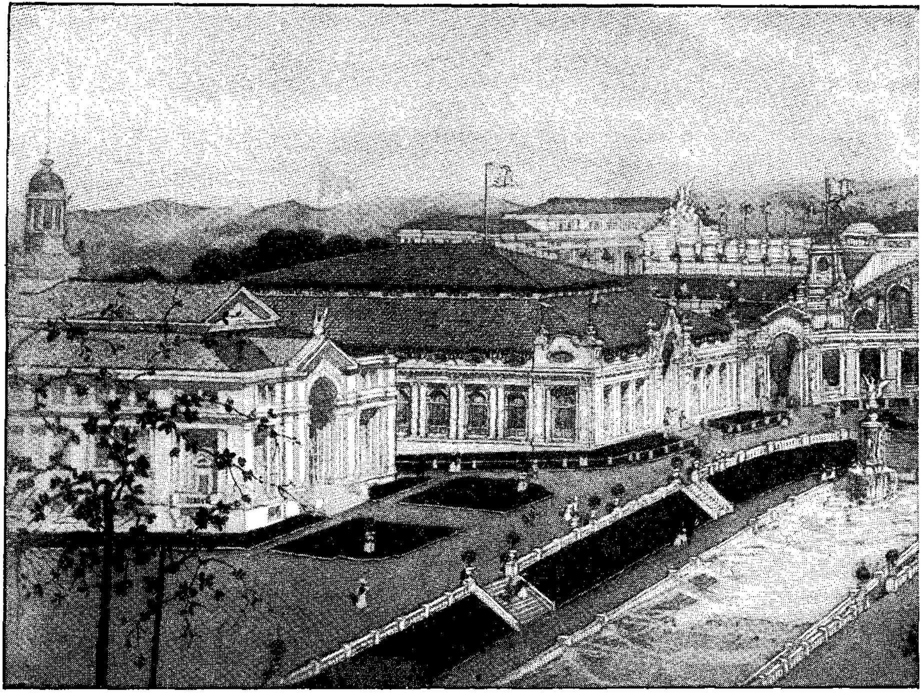
Is it safe to visit a Western city? Will not this great crowd of Westerners be lawbreaking and riotous? I think the Easterner will find occasion for surprise in this regard. So good-natured a crowd he will probably never have seen before, so companionable and ready to exchange a kindly word with a fellow-traveler, but law and order are as conspicuous as good humor. The crowd is happy in its sense of prosperous well-being and its satisfaction with what it is seeing and doing, but its sense of self-respect is also strong, and though there may be hilarity and joyous abandon—verging upon the undignified in the eyes of the Bostonian—there is always a regard for the rights of others and a sense of neighborliness which is just as well as kind.

I think that the Western spirit finds expression in the utilitarianism which is the underlying spirit of the Exposition. These palaces of art were not built for the day, to vanish with the passing of the Exposition. The best of them are to remain, serving the future needs of the State University, which has lent a part of its unrivaled campus for the Exposition, and at its close will receive the land back beautified and enriched by nearly $2,000,000 worth of permanent improvements. Utilitarian, too, is the primary object of the Exposition, which is, of course, to exploit the natural resources of the North Pacific coast. A world's fair is a scheme of advertising, and this no less than the Columbian Exposition or that at Paris; but the scope of this Exposition has been designedly restricted, and the quality of its exhibits is improved because the aim has been intensive rather than extensive. It is a marvelous revelation not only of possibilities but of actual accomplishments in the way of civilization, and it ought to make the Eastern visitor take a new pride in the greatness of his country as represented both by the incalculable wealth of its Western resources and by the eager spirit which has established so great an empire in the West.

A citizen of Seattle has no apologies to make at the present time. He is proud of his Western country, proud of his city—itself one of the wonders of the age—proud of the extent of his Northwest and its boundless future. But, though proud, his mental attitude is not one of conceit. He believes that it is worth while for the man of the East and of Europe to visit Puget Sound and see the exhibition here


CHIEF SEATTLE

THE REMARKABLE ABORIGINAL FROM WHOM THE METROPOLIS OF WASHINGTON TAKES ITS NAME

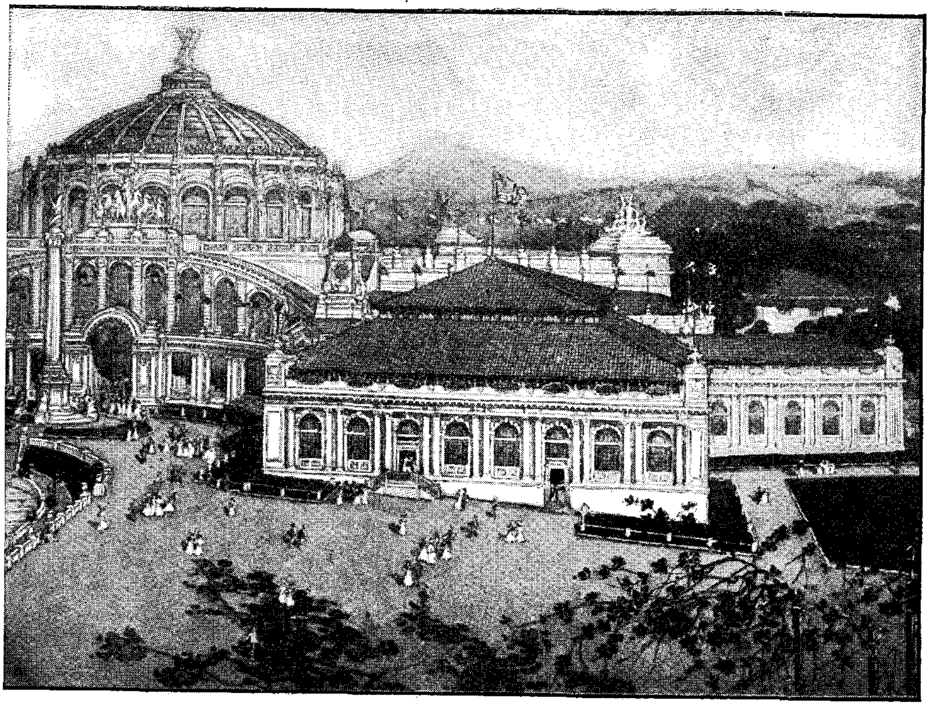


A BROAD VIEW OF THE UNITED

of Nature's gifts and man's achievements, but he recognizes his need for assistance in his work of empire-building, and he invites the world to come, not only to admire, but to co-operate in the labor of development. Here is real Americanism—a spirit of boundless faith in the future, coupled with a sturdy sense of pride and self-reliance. The Alaska-Yukon-Pacific Exposition is a milestone to mark the progress of the West, and while one wonders at the marvelous change which has taken place in the sixty-two years since Marcus Whitman died, one cannot but be overawed by a vague prophetic sense of a coming world-civilization whose capital will be washed by the waters of the Pacific.

The other day a man from the same town as I was visiting the Agricultural Building, studying with interest the various exhibits. Suddenly he came upon one whose fruits and grains seemed to him finer than all else that he had seen, and, without looking for the name of the county making the exhibit, he exclaimed: "This must be the California exhibit. I never saw such superb fruit in my life." When he learned that the exhibit was from his own county, his respect for his location in life was increased. The incident illustrates the process of self-discovery which this Exposition is carrying on for the entire Pacific coast. All of the Pacific Coast States have their own buildings, and some of the counties of Washington likewise. The Westerner who makes the round of the exhibits must be amazed by the discoveries thrust upon him. He will love his country better for knowing it more thoroughly, and he will respect his neighbors more. The educational results of the Exposition can be divided between the results on the consciousness of the Northwest itself and those on the consciousness of the Nation at large. Since I am trying to interpret the Exposition for the country at large, I will pass over the former, and speak of what the Easterner will learn who makes the trip to Puget Sound this summer.

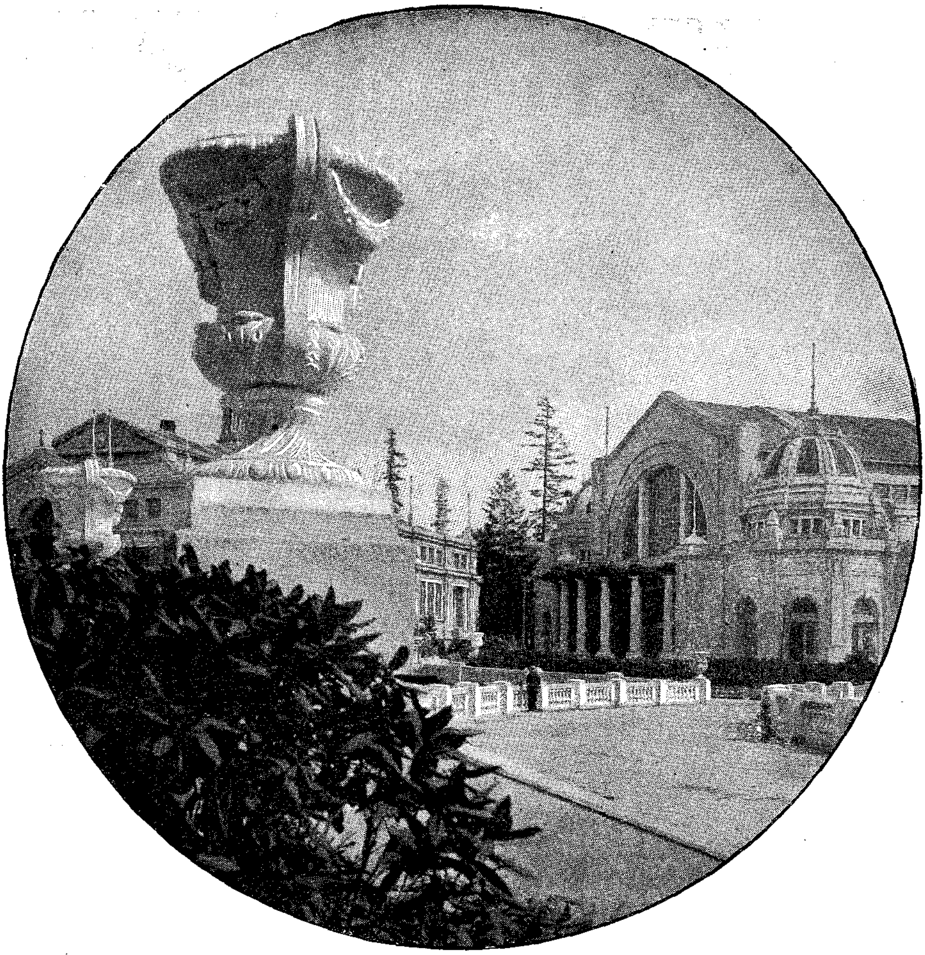
When he has recovered from the discovery of the vastness of the continent, which always impresses the traveler who first crosses the plains, he will be glad to discover the truth concerning climatic conditions in the far Northwest. He had conceived of Alaska as a winter-bound



STATES GOVERNMENT BUILDINGS

land of snow and ice, of Puget Sound as a region of fog and rain, and, since the Pacific Northwest was in a far north latitude, he conceived that its winters must be severe and its summers short. What must be his surprise, then, to discover two hundred and eighty-five botanical varieties exhibited from the region of Dawson City, close to the Arctic Circle; forty kinds of vegetables and fruits grown along the Alaskan coast; the cool but sunny days on Puget Sound; and that the isothermal line of southeastern Washington is the same as that of Washington, D. C. He will escape both mosquitoes and heavy thunder-storms if he comes to the great Northwest, and in place of the extreme heat of the Mississippi Valley or of the Atlantic coast he will find a temperature which rarely rises above eighty-five, and a cool, invigorating air which makes life seem to be worth the living.

Secretary Seward paid $7,200,000 for Alaska. Since 1880 it has paid back to the people of the United States $292,000,000. For the first time in history this colonial possession, purchased at a cost of less than two cents an acre, is making a satisfactory display of its wealth. Every one knows now that Alaska is a region rich in furs and in mining; but the other resources of this scarcely touched territory are little known. Last year the proceeds of Northwest fishing were over $10,000,000, mostly for salmon, halibut, and cod. I am told that half the halibut sold in Boston are shipped from Seattle. In the building devoted entirely to Alaska an interesting model of an Alaskan salmon cannery is shown under a glass canopy with electric light installation. It represents a one-line cannery plant of the Alaska Packers' Association, and shows the entire process of canning, from the making of the can on the upper floor to the delivery of the fish at the bottom, and all the processes of preparation and cooking, with the final labeling and boxing of the cans for market. Close by is a model kitchen and dining-room where the merits of Alaska canned salmon are demonstrated by a competent chef and served to the public free. Here, too, can be seen the "Iron Chink," a machine which will take the place of many Chinamen. It removes the head, tail, and fins, splits the fish up and cleans it, washes it thoroughly, and cuts it in readiness for the can. It will



A HAPPY COMBINATION OF ART AND VERDURE

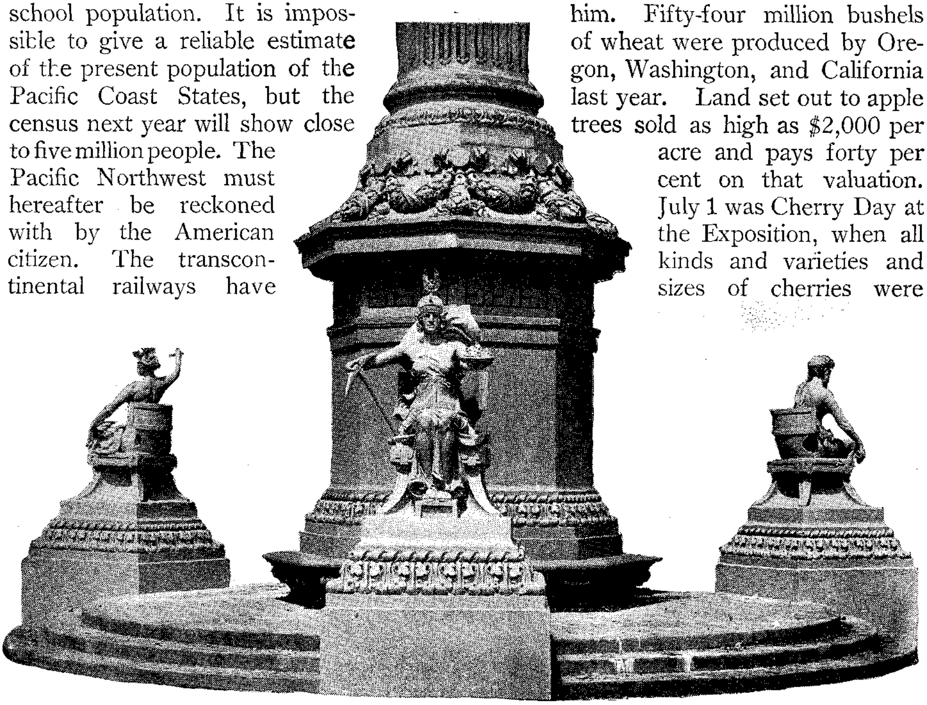
dress salmon weighing from one to twenty pounds at the rate of sixty per minute, thirty-six hundred per hour, or over forty thousand a day. Gold was discovered in the Klondike in 1896, and at Nome in 1899. The story of Alaska's development dates practically from that time, and she now leads California as a gold-producer. Twenty tons of gold were mined in 1908. One of the interesting exhibits in the Alaska Building is a million dollars in gold shown in a steel-barred cage, under constant supervision. Models of mines in operation are also shown, illustrating the method of transporting ore by aerial tramways, of using water under hydraulic pressure, and actual mining. A superb panorama of Alaska scenery gives a vivid impression of its sublimity.

But Alaska is not, as the Easterner imagines it, a land where the thermometer is always sub-zero. The warm waters of the Japan Current modify profoundly the climate of the Pacific coast, and between the sea and the Coast Range, with its great mountain peaks like St. Elias, is a broad, rich lowland with mild climate and surprising agricultural resources. Timothy and red-top clover are shown along with wheat, oats, and barley, both in the head and in the grain. The vegetables comprise turnips, cabbage, beets, potatoes, cauliflower, lettuce, onions, and radishes. Alaska is still a land of almost undiscovered possibilities. "All the precious metals, coal in abundance, fisheries of great value, timber that may possibly later become the last resource of a wasteful

Nation, rich soil that matures some crops rapidly under the forcing sunlight of the eighteen-hour northern day—this wealth is distributed over a country that extends as far west from Skagway as Skagway is west from New York, and is one-fifth as large as the whole United States." So James J. Hill spoke in the great address with which he opened the Alaska-Yukon-Pacific Exposition on June 1. The "empire-builder," who has done such great deeds in uniting the Pacific coast and the country west of the mountains, appreciated the significance of the Exposition and the influence which the development of Alaska has had upon the development of the Pacific Coast States.

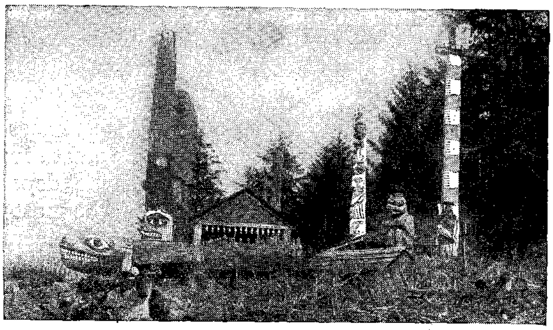
In 1870 the population of California was 56,000, and that of Oregon, Washington, and Idaho only 130,000 more. Portland had scarcely more than 8,000 inhabitants, and the whole of Washington Territory but 24,000. In the forty years which have passed since that time the increase in population is hardly conceivable. The story of San Francisco, Los Angeles, Portland, Tacoma, Spokane, and Seattle reads like a dream. Seattle is claiming 310,000 population, based upon a census taken by the post-office and upon the school population. It is impossible to give a reliable estimate of the present population of the Pacific Coast States, but the census next year will show close to five million people. The Pacific Northwest must hereafter be reckoned with by the American citizen. The transcontinental railways have directed his attention to it. The tide of Alaskan gold has fascinated his eye and the exhibition of its natural resources must appeal to his imagination. "It possesses in abundance all of the four great sources of wealth upon which human life depends. Its fisheries are some of the most valuable in the world. Although its mineral wealth may not be developed half a century yet, it has made the coast from Lower California to Cape Nome as famous as the diggings of Australia or the reefs of the South African Rand. It has the one large body of merchantable timber still standing in the United States. Its soil will produce in profusion the best quality of everything grown between the sub-arctics and the sub-tropics." In the Columbia River Basin alone one-third of the available water power of the United States is awaiting development.

The New York farmer who visits the Exposition at Seattle will have a great illumination as to the possibilities of his country. He will no longer think that Ulster County is the richest land on earth. He will find in the exhibits of Oregon and Washington and Idaho a richness of agricultural development which will amaze him. Fifty-four million bushels of wheat were produced by Oregon, Washington, and California last year. Land set out to apple trees sold as high as $2,000 per acre and pays forty per cent on that valuation. July 1 was Cherry Day at the Exposition, when all kinds and varieties and sizes of cherries were



THE BASE OF THE ALASKA MONUMENT

A GRAVE TOTEM



ALASKAN BURYING GROUND

STRANGE FIGURE-HEAD OF AN INDIAN CANOE

ALASKA INDIANS IN DANCING COSTUME

ALASKA INDIANS AND THEIR WORK

shown in boundless profusion. Oregon raises the cherry as well as Italy, and the business in small fruits of all kinds amounts to thousands of car-loads each year.

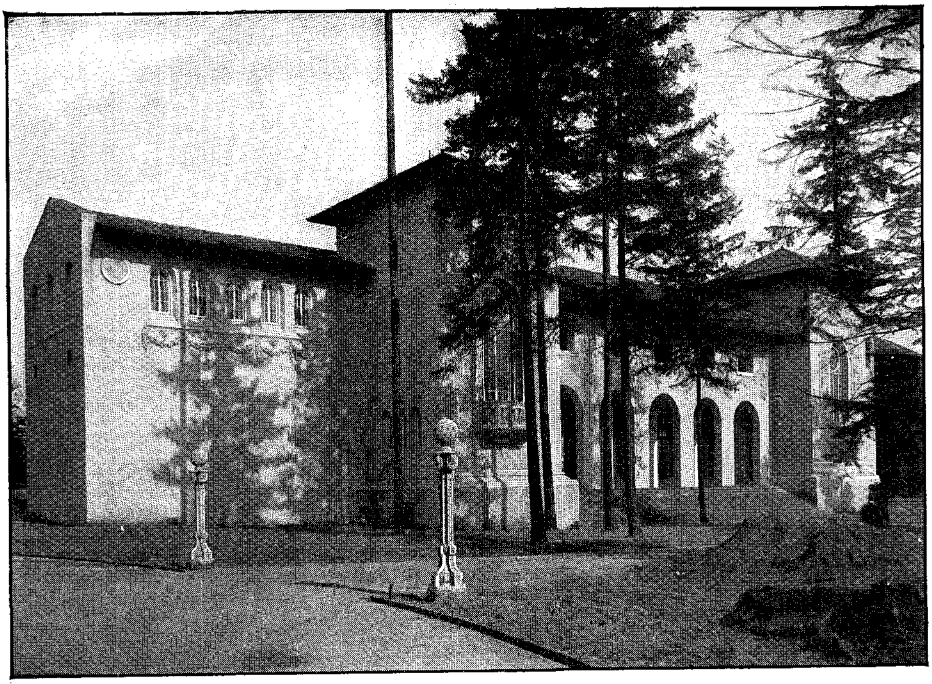
It is a difficult thing to talk about Western productions to an Eastern audience, because they will not believe one-half of what is told, and will discredit the honesty of the teller through sheer incredulity. I think that a visit to Seattle will have a remarkable value in developing the imagination as well as the ability to believe what one is told. The richness of Northwestern soil need no longer be taken upon faith, for its productions are here visible to the eye. Such apples as made the Spokane Apple Show in 1908 a surprise to the world can be seen and tasted.

While the forestry movement is gathering headway and the growing sense of the danger of an impending lumber famine is increasing, there is reassurance in knowing that in the three Northwestern States is still standing the largest body of timber in the world. A great many trees have been cut in this country since Columbus discovered America, but the secretary of one of the great lumber companies estimates that in these three States alone there is now standing more timber than has been cut and consumed since 1492. Practically one-half of the standing timber of the United States, the largest body of virgin forest in the world, including over one-third of the forest reserve area established by the Government, is contained here. The Forestry Building and the forestry exhibit in the United States Government Building are, therefore, of unusual interest. Perhaps the most striking architectural achievement of the fair is the great building made of logs in which the forestry exhibit is contained. Huge as are the one hundred and twenty-four logs out of which the colonnade in front of the building is made, the task was not to find in the forests logs which were large enough, but logs which were small enough, and the contractors were bound by the agreement that none of the logs should have a diameter greater than five feet. Each of them weighs fifty thousand pounds, and in each of them there is sufficient clear lumber to build a five-room bungalow, with enough left over in the rough for a woodshed and a fence. It is the largest log house ever erected, and in it is perhaps the most comprehensive forestry exhibit. At the close of the Exposition the building will go to the State University for the use of its forestry school.

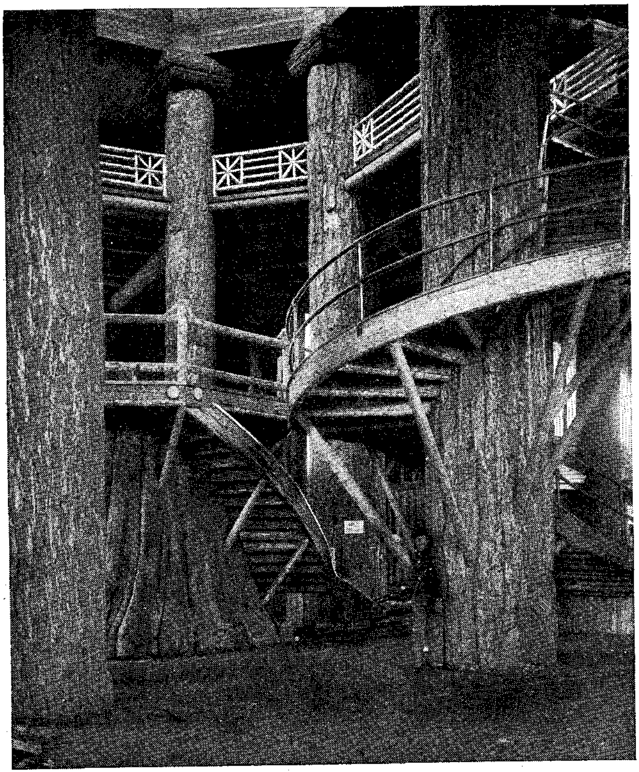
But if the display of Western resources will be a revelation to the people of the country at large, the Government exhibit will have an equally educating effect upon the people of the Northwest. The United States Government has spent $650,000 on its exhibit, which is the largest it has ever made, and includes a most impressive display from each of the great governmental departments and an elaborate exhibit from Hawaii, the Philippines, and Alaska. One could well spend weeks in studying the objects of interest in the Government Building, the effect of which upon both National pride and National intelligence must be considerable. A biograph room is in daily use, where pictures and lectures give the general public an opportunity to see the great irrigation projects and reclamation work now being done by the Government, the Panama Canal under construction, the Army and Navy in action, the making of good roads, views of the National Park and forest reserves, and the Capitol of the Nation.

But the Pacific coast faces westward as well as eastward, and in the Alaska-Yukon-Pacific Exposition East and West clasp hands. There Japan shows in a notable way the variety and greatness of her manufacturing interests. China is not so well represented, but the influence of the fair in the development of Pacific commerce will be marked. Mr. Hill reminded his hearers that the total trade of the Pacific amounts to almost $4,000,000,000, of which we control possibly one-fifth. Japan's commerce approaches $500,000,000 a year. The shortest sea route from the United States to the ports of China and Japan begins at the wharves of Puget Sound.

It seemed to me that there was a special significance in the reception given by Judge Burke, on the night before the Exposition opened, to the officers of the Japanese fleet. Seattle has ever maintained friendship with Nippon, and one of the momentous consequences of this fair must be the cementing of that friendship and the



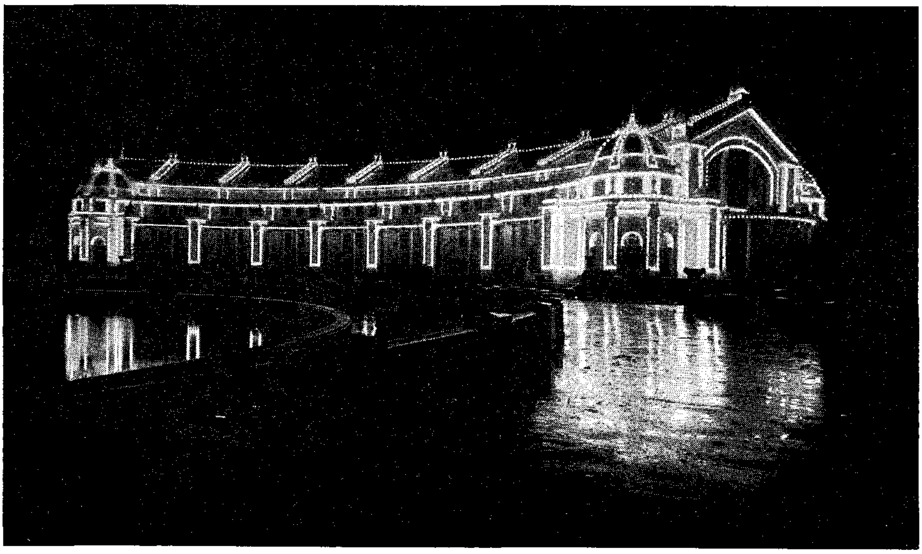
THE CALIFORNIA BUILDING



THE REMARKABLE CONSTRUCTION OF THE FORESTRY BUILDING cultivation of deep and lasting relations with the Orient. If the Pacific coast is to enter into its full heritage, it must avail itself of the enormous commercial possibilities through trade with Asia. The vast Pacific is not a barrier which nature has set to block the progress of Americanism westward, but rather an avenue of approach to the countless millions of China and the Orient. The next epoch in the National development will be a commercial one. When the Pacific, now empty of ships, shall be thronged with ships sailing under the American flag, the jealous suspicions toward China and Japan which are now vulgarly entertained will be dissipated by the sense of commercial obligations and business needs. The applause which the little brown troops from the Aso and Soyo received along the line of march on the opening parade testified to the admiration and friendly appreciation on the part of the Americans for the dauntless and invincible visitors.

But the best exhibit at the Exposition is the character of its founders. I cannot do better than to quote again from Mr. Hill: "Out of the West have come formative impulses that enriched the history of the country. It is the goal of the enterprising and fearless. While others deliberate, it acts. While they count consequences, it looks upon results as already nearing accomplishment. If the star of empire in history has moved westward, it followed rather than led those bold spirits by which empires are made and upheld. Here, on the westernmost verge of the continent, where progress must pause for a moment, like the early voyagers, before venturing across the broad Pacific to remake that Orient which beheld some of her earliest conquests, may well be exhibited in pronounced and admirable form the qualities that have always marked the American West."

The Alaska-Yukon-Pacific Exposition is not a local fair, merely another demonstration of "the Seattle spirit." It is a comprehensive exhibit of all the resources of the Pacific coast, and it illustrates in concrete form what may be called the unification of the Pacific Northwest. The States of Oregon, Washington, and Idaho have, in the past few years, recognized their geographical relationship and their commercial and social unity. To this sisterhood of States with similar ideals and a growing consciousness of common destiny must be added Alaska, the young giant whose power is still that of babyhood. When these four commonwealths shall have leagued themselves in a community of aim and endeavor and have determined to exert in unity their political and economic influence, the mission of this Exposition will have been accomplished.



THE AGRICULTURAL BUILDING

Verses

The Fancy of a Child

By William Northrop Morse

WHO?

Who makes the waves run in and out,
And shows the gulls their way about?
Who built the sky so blue and big,
And gave the sand for me to dig?

BROTHERS

It is very sweet to see
The bluebird in the apple tree;
And oh, so nice to hear him sing,
"Little brother, this is spring!"

THE MOUSE FAIRY

One day, when I was in the loft,
And tumbling in the haymow soft,
There came a mousie fairy.
She looked at me, and wished to play;
I'm sorry now I ran away,
For she was dear, and wee, and gray—
But just a little scarey!

IN HIDING

I wish I were a bird, to fly
Above the clouds so white,
And see if it's on top of them
The stars hide till the night.

PLAYMATES

Oh, I have a little brook,
That Mother doesn't know;
Ev'ry day I come to look,
Because I love it so.

All alone I run away
To my brook here in the dell,
And together we two play
Until the supper bell.

THE RESULT OF A HEAD-ON COLLISION

Such a celestial catastrophe is here exemplified in the spiral nebula in the Triangle, a revolving mass of gas and incandescent dust thrown out by two bursting suns

The Life of a Star

By Waldemar Kaempffert

MILLIONS of years hence, how many we cannot even roughly determine, the sun will be reduced from a ball of glowing vapor to a gigantic black cinder rushing through space. Unwarmed by any central luminary, its crust will be washed by oceans of air liquefied by a cold too intense for any living creature to endure. Yet the sun will not be quite dead. Within its frozen shell a fierce heat will still be imprisoned, and compounds of terrific explosive energy will be stored. Like a huge celestial bomb the sun will swim through the heavens, searching for a chance flame which will ignite its fuse and release its pent force. Will the fuse ever be ignited, and if so, what will be the result?

The answer has been given by Professor Svante Arrhenius, one of the most brilliant physicists of our time, in the form of a theory of star creation and world

A NEBULA WHICH HAS LOST ALL BUT A TRACE OF ITS SPIRAL FORM

The nebula in the Swan, now a mere wisp of light millions of miles long

building, based on the bursting of extinct suns—a theory which is perhaps the most acceptable of the many hypotheses that have recently been advanced, because it has been in part deduced from the marvelous physical and chemical discoveries of recent years.

If the bursting of a black, frozen sun is to be the first premise in the argument, naturally it becomes necessary to inquire what will cause an explosion. The only possible means would be a collision with another sun, luminous or extinct. Arrhenius has painstakingly computed the chances of such a cataclysm, and has found that our sun is likely to clash with

THE BEGINNING OF A SOLAR SYSTEM

The great nebula in Orion, a glowing mass of star dust and gas whirling about a central sun

a luminous star in a hundred thousand billion years, and with a dark star (invisible to us) in a thousand billion years, the opportunities of encountering a dark body being greater because of the larger number of invisible stars. So inconceivably vast are these stretches of time that the likelihood of any such celestial catastrophe seems woefully remote. Yet a million years in the career of a star is no more than a fleeting second in the life of a man.

That such collisions do occur most modern astronomers will admit. Visible evidence is found in the phenomena of " new stars," or novæ, as they are technically known, because of their sudden

A LATER STAGE IN THE EVOLUTION OF A SOLAR SYSTEM

The nebula in Andromeda, a spindle of star dust ready to separate into a nucleus and concentric rings

appearance. Such stars are by no means rare. Hardly a year passes but one is discovered. One of the most wonderful of these celestial apparitions was observed on February 22, 1901, in the constellation of Perseus, by the Scotch astronomer Anderson. A photograph of the constellation taken on February 21, 1901, revealed no sign of the nova. Yet twenty hours later it flared in full view. It grew brighter and brighter, faded, and then regained something of its former brilliancy. So it fluctuated in splendor with noticeable regularity.

The constellation of Perseus is so distant from us that its light, speeding toward us at the rate of 186,000 miles a second, reaches the earth only after a lapse of one hundred and twenty years. What Anderson, therefore, really saw, was a light that suddenly blazed in Perseus in 1781, while the American colonies were still fighting for independence.

How is this sudden flashing of a new star before our eyes to be explained? And how can astronomers account for that star's singular fluctuations in bright-

A CELESTIAL FOURTH OF JULY PINWHEEL

The spiral nebula in Ursa Major, showing the birth of a new sun

ness? In the apparition of a nova Arrhenius, in common with many astronomers, sees a superb stellar catastrophe, the crashing together of two giant celestial spheres, plunging through space at the breathless rate of four hundred miles a second, faster by seven hundred times than a projectile fired from a twelve-inch gun. That collision is the flame which explodes an extinct bomb-like sun.

The effect of this impact can be foretold with considerable accuracy from our knowledge of mechanics. If two bodies traveling at the rate of four hundred miles a second are suddenly stopped, some disposition must be made of their energy. Part of this energy is converted into a heat so intense that the two stars, or rather the fragments into which they are shattered, glow with a piercing light. The rest of the energy is spent in twisting the shattered stars around a common center at a speed of hundreds of miles a second. Picture to yourself a Fourth of July pinwheel ejecting streams of flame and you gain some conception of this spinning,

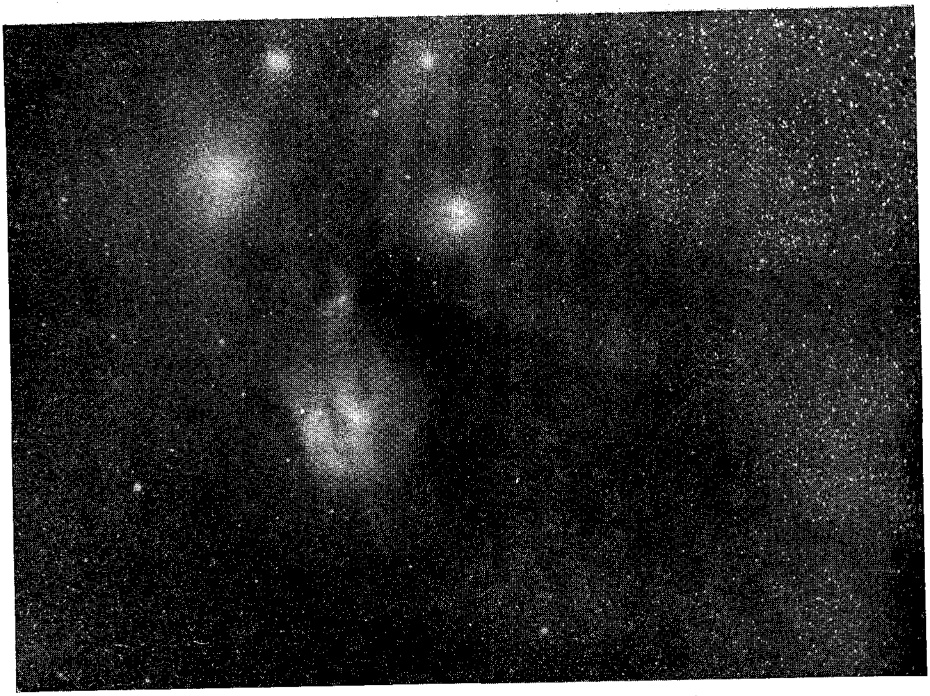
A STAR CLUSTER PROBABLY DEVELOPED FROM A NEBULA

The star cluster in Hercules slowly revolving about a sun in periods of millions of years

glowing, fragmented mass. The larger portions of each of the original suns remain at the center of the dizzily whirling new mass; but the explosive compounds stored within each sun before collision are suddenly unlocked and hurled in torrents many million miles from the seat of explosion. Gases and fine dust compose these hot streams. As they are flung out, the gases expand and therefore cool, and the dust, gathered in great clouds, obscures the new star as it whirls outward. Because the dust clouds must journey millions of miles and not merely a few inches, as in the case of the Fourth of July pinwheel, before their energy is expended, days, weeks, and perhaps months must elapse before their speed of rotation will be slackened. Such clouds of fine soot and dust, receding from the center in an ever-widening circle, were the cause of the luminous vagaries of Nova Persei. At first the dust clung to the central mass and had much the same speed of rotation, but in about a month the outer particles had been whirled so far from the center that their period of revolution had lengthened to several days. When the thicker dust clouds spun around toward the earth, the new star was partially hidden. Thus Arrhenius explains the curious fluctuations in the brightness of Nova Persei and other new stars.

A celestial Fourth of July pinwheel, spinning around at the rate of hundreds of miles a second, is bound to have an enormous centrifugal force, which must have its effect on the particles composing the pinwheel. Mechanics teaches us that the chief effect is the flattening of the gas and the dust clouds composing the new star into a disk, intensely hot and dense at the center, extremely attenuated and cold at the remote outer edge. Whatever may be left of the spiral stream constituting the original pinwheel is distributed about the hot, glowing central body.

In the course of ages the spiral streams merge into one or more rings, and are finally obliterated in a general distribution of the original matter through the action of gravitation and other forces. Our solar system, vast though it may be, is dwarfed by comparison with this enormous, glowing disk. Whatever may be the speed of rotation of the inner mass, the outer particles travel very slowly, because their energy has been largely dissipated. All



A NEBULA INVADED BY WANDERING STARS

The great nebula of Rho Ophiuchi. The black rifts mark the paths of intruding bodies which have gathered about them star dust and gas as they passed through

this is not merely scientific speculation, unsupported by astronomical proof. Nebulæ, great expanses of misty light, may be found in the heavens, many of them still pinwheel-like and spiral in shape. They are the remnants of terrific collisions, of masses that once whirled with enormous velocities and have flattened out and assumed their present form. The nebulæ in Andromeda, in Lyra, and in the Triangle are spiral or ring-shaped in form. Even such expansive irregular masses of gas as the nebulæ in Orion and the Swan (Cygnus) still exhibit traces of coiled streams, after the lapse of obliterating æons.

Thus the original extinct colliding suns are transformed into an enormous flat nebula of more or less regular shape, composed of gas and dust revolving slowly about the heavier fragments of the collision concentrated in the center in the form of a single, new, living sun, blazing brightly and spinning swiftly around its axis. Professor Dewar has experimentally proved that, at the low temperature prevailing in the outer regions of a nebula, it is one of the properties of a dust particle to attract and condense on its surface whatever gas may be within its immediate vicinity. It may be safely assumed, therefore, that each particle of dust hurled out by the explosion of two colliding suns bears its charge of gas. That these gas-laden dust particles should collide with one another would follow from their motion and their excessive number; and that these particles should be cemented together by the film of liquid gases on their surfaces would in turn follow from the fact of their collision. Thus, in the course of centuries, large grains or aggregations of matter constituting meteorites are formed, which, by gravitational attraction, gather about them part of the remaining dust and gas. Stars, comets, and meteorites from other systems will also wander into the nebula, attracting the gas and the dust of the nebula. Evidence of this draining of a nebula by an immigrant star is to be found in many a constellation, notably in the Swan, where a distinct lane has been plowed through a nebula by an errant star. By this upbuilding of meteorites from colliding, gas-laden dust particles and the concentration of nebular matter by bodies which have strayed into the nebula, the entire mass of gas and dust is converted in the lapse of ages into clusters of stars, slowly revolving about the central sun in periods of thousands of years. Such star clusters are familiar objects in the heavens. They may be found in the Pleiades, in Pegasus, and in other constellations.

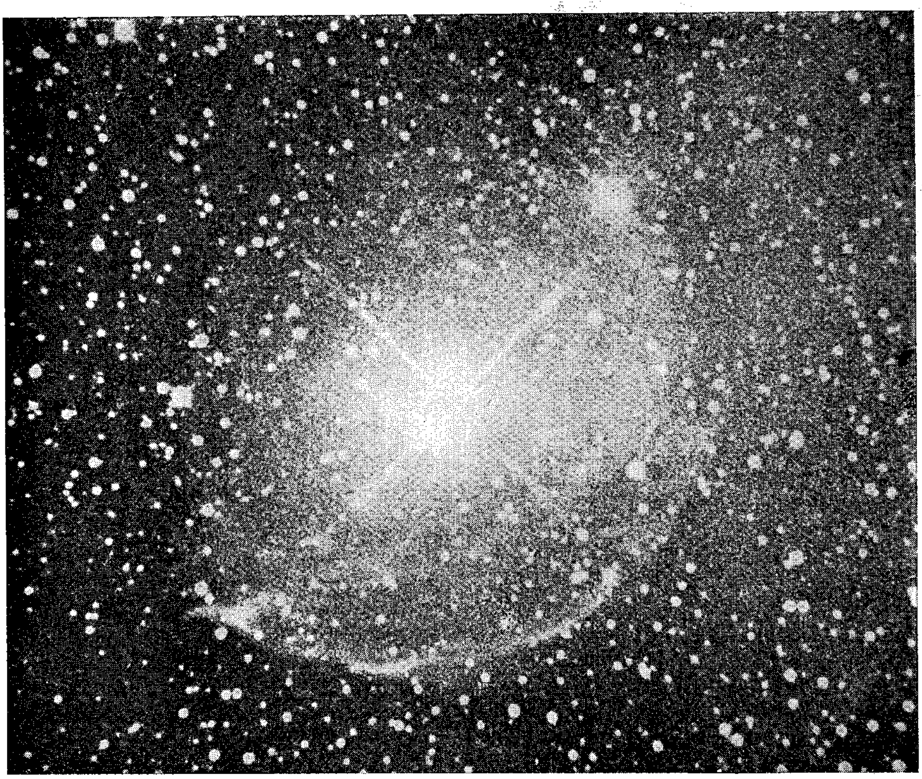
Each star in a cluster may be regarded as either the center of a new solar system or as a new-born world—not a rock-bound, sea-swept world as yet, such as our earth, but a glowing, chaotic mass, an embryo which will cool, and shrink as it cools, and which will eventually chill into a solid sphere. The central sun, because of its greater size, will blaze on for centuries after the clusters about it have congealed into planets. Because the shrinking and cooling are not of a year's nor even of a century's duration, but are extended over millions of years, it is possible to study the various stages of the process in stars that have been formed from nebulæ at widely different epochs. The method of investigation bears some relation to the system devised by the evolutionists in tracing the development of life on this earth. With the aid of fossils dug out of the earth the paleontologist has ingeniously bound the living present to the dead past with the chain of evolution, and shown very convincingly how the creatures that now roam the earth are inevitably linked with the extinct animals of prehistoric time. An analogous system of stellar classification, formulated by Professor W. W. Campbell, and adopted by Arrhenius, throws not a little light on the ancestry of the myriad of stars whose rays pierce the heavens. Such a search indubitably points to nebulæ as the stuff of which worlds are fashioned.

Telescopes can aid but little in this study of heavenly fossils. No lens, however large, can aid the observer if the star to which his instrument is directed is so distant that its light leaps the abyss between it and the earth only after the lapse of centuries. Often enough he sees the star, not as it glows now, but as it glowed when Egypt was young and Rome was but seven uninhabited hills on the banks of the Tiber. Unable to rely on the telescope, the astronomer employs an instrument called the spectroscope, which may be said to transport the star to his observatory, where it may be chemically analyzed almost as easily as if it were a stone picked up in the road. Roughly defined, the spectroscope is a light-sieve. In other words, it separates light into the various colored rays of which it is composed, a task which it performs with the aid of glass prisms. Each set of rays of a certain color or group of colors stands for a certain chemical element or compound. Heat a pinch of common table salt (sodium chloride) in the flame of a Bunsen gas-burner, and the spectroscope will split the resultant light into yellow lines occupying a definite position in the spectrum or image formed by the instrument. Those yellow lines grouped in that particular way are characteristic of the metal sodium and of no other chemical element. If they are found in the spectrum of a distant sun, the astronomer knows that sodium forms part of its chemical composition. By arranging stellar spectra as the paleontologist arranges fossils, it is possible to ascertain what stars are still young and what stars are old. Furthermore, the relative intensities of spectrum lines render it possible to estimate the temperature of a distant blazing star, and the width and sharpness of the lines the pressure to which the vapors are subjected. Thus it happens that the spectroscopic analysis of a star, which even through the most powerful telescope must appear only as a brilliant point, reveals to us the secrets of its structure.

In estimating the period which probably elapses before a star in a cluster will shrink into an incrusted world, the color of the star's light plays no small part. Red-hot iron is not nearly so hot as white-hot iron. The color of a molten metal gives the iron-founder a clue to its temperature. Similarly, a star's temperature may be gauged by its tint. Since temperature, and therefore color, alter with age, it is possible to state in a rough way that red stars are the oldest of luminous bodies, and that the orange, yellow, and white stars follow in respective antiquity. Youngest and hottest of all are the bluish-white stars.

The spectroscope draws nicer distinctions than those which can be drawn by color alone. Professor Campbell has discovered from his study of stellar spectra that when the spectrum of a star is rich in the bright lines of the gases hydrogen and helium, we may be certain that the star in question is young. Indeed, the presence of nebulous masses about many stars in this stage of their evolution proves how true is Professor Campbell's conception. In the constellation of Orion, for example, is a nebula in which stars are plunged. The spectra of the nebula and of the stars exhibit the same lines. Can there be any doubt that the stars were formed from the nebula?

In passing from the white stage of infancy the star shrinks more and more. The result is a change in the spectrum. The metals calcium and iron appear in their characteristic lines. Vega and Sirius are stars of this type. As the star ages the hydrogen lines thin out, and the lines of the metals become stronger and more numerous. When a stage is reached corresponding with that of our own sun, a yellow stage which may be considered the very summit of stellar life, some twenty thousand metallic lines appear. Then comes a gradual cooling. As it changes in hue from yellow to red more complex chemical combinations are found in the star, and carbon makes its appearance. Then follows a stage represented by the planet Jupiter, still gaseous, still hot, but no longer luminous without the aid of the sun's borrowed light. A further step brings with it external solidification, the formation of a crust inclosing a hot interior, at which point the earth has arrived. The last and most pathetic period is represented by our moon—frozen, desolate, dead.



A NEW STAR

Nova Persei, a star born more than a century before its light reached the Earth

Like our own sun, the central luminary, by which these worlds formed of clustered nebular matter are warmed, will slowly cool and freeze and pass through a similar evolution. Eventually it will become once more a celestial cinder, inclosing within

A STAR CLUSTER WELL ON THE WAY TO BECOMING A SOLAR SYSTEM

its outer shell compounds and gases of incalculable explosive energy. Again it will be reduced to a great bomb, searching for the spark by which it is destined to be ignited, and again it will collide with a star, aflame or extinct, and will explode. Another spiral nebula will be formed, whirling around the new central sun and eventually assuming the shape of a ring of dust and gas. The eternal cycle will run its course. Star clusters will again be formed by colliding gas-laden dust particles and intruding celestial bodies. Solar systems and worlds will spring from the clusters, and their suns will blaze and die, only to be revived by other collisions.

Thus the great clock of the universe runs on forever. When it ticks, a millennium has passed; when it strikes the hour, an æon has sped its course. Imperceptibly, yet relentlessly, the hands slip over the dial, an eternal journey that begins over and over again whenever it ends.

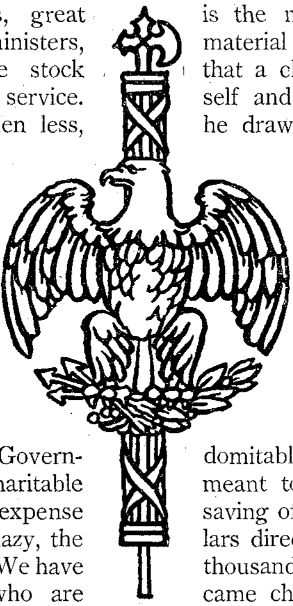
THE STARS

BY MARIE HEMSTREET

Softly the trembling tapers of the night
   Glow from the altars of their wonderland.
Each seems the candle of an acolyte
   Lit in the darkness by a priestly Hand.
Lo, these be worlds, and our world to their sight
Is but a candle burning in the night!

Patriots in the Public Service

By Lyman Beecher Stowe



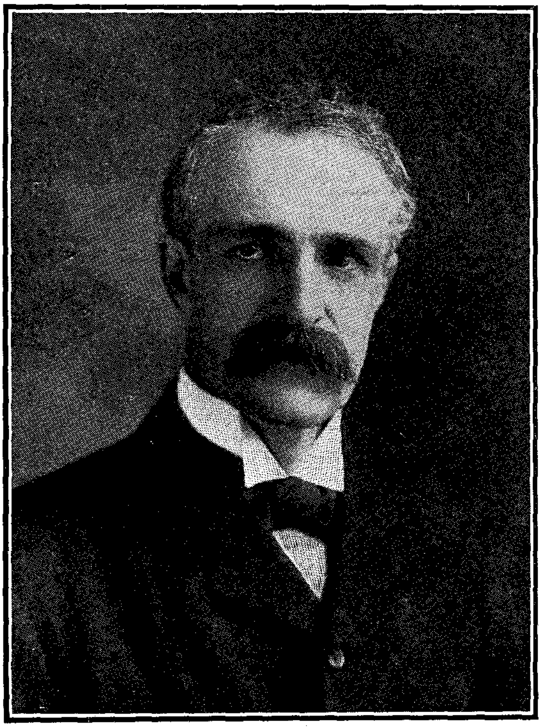
SOLDIERS and sailors, great Presidents, Cabinet ministers, and Senators are the stock heroes of the Government service. Without respecting these men less, there is another class of public servants whom we should respect more. These are the under officials in the civil walks of the public service. We have heard so much of office seekers, office holders, political appointees (political being used in its narrow and unfavorable sense), that some of us have come to look upon the Government as a kind of huge charitable institution maintained at the expense of all for the benefit of the lazy, the incompetent, and the venal. We have heard little of the men who are doing big things in small positions; of the men who are working long hours for scant thanks and less pay. These men are not called upon to die for their country. They are called upon to live for her, and they are doing it. Because less dramatic, their service is not less patriotic. Of such men there are so many that to select individuals must of necessity be an arbitrary matter. For every one here mentioned there are scores unmentioned.

There is no class of men who contribute so directly and on so large a scale to the welfare, progress, and wealth of the whole people as do the scientists of the Federal Government. This is due to their exceptional ability, to their *esprit de corps*, the watchword of which is disinterested service, and to the position of vantage and influence which their official status gives them. By a curious anomaly, they are among the worst paid of public servants. This is probably due in part to the proverbial suspicion or even contempt with which the so-called practical man is apt to regard the man of science. This practical man is slow to realize that applied science is the most practical thing in the material universe. He does not know that a chief difference between himself and the man of science is that he draws his conclusions from inaccurate and insufficient data, while the scientist draws his from data which are both full and accurate.

Notable among the Government scientists is Dr. Leland O. Howard, Chief of the Bureau of Entomology in the Department of Agriculture. He is a quiet, unobtrusive, but indomitable worker. His work has meant to the American people the saving of millions on millions of dollars directly; indirectly, the saving of thousands of lives. In 1894 he became chief of the then Division of Entomology. Through his rare executive ability no less than his scientific attainments, he has raised this small Division, with scarcely a dozen assistants and an annual appropriation of $35,000 only, to a Bureau with one hundred trained experts and an appropriation for the current year of half a million dollars. And every dollar of added expense has come back fourfold in increase of National wealth. Dr. Howard has made this Bureau the leading entomological organization of the wolrd, and has thus made the United States the foremost country in economic entomology.

Dr. Howard's contributions to the well-being and prosperity of the people may be divided into two groups: first, those resulting from his personal investigations, for which he is solely responsible; second, those resulting from the investigations of his assistants under his supervision. Dr. Howard's special field of investigation has to do with insects that carry disease and with the parasites of injurious insects. He knows more about mosquitoes and house-flies than any other man. By experiments in Washington he discovered that house-flies carry typhoid fever germs. He discovered, too, the particular species of mosquito which carries the germs of malaria and yellow fever. This knowledge, as used by the doctors of the Public Health and Marine Hospital Service as well as by private physicians, has since averted epidemics and saved thousands of lives. His work on mosquitoes started the effective crusades against those death-dealing pests and showed the practicability of their ultimate extermination. He is now visiting the capitals of Europe and making arrangements through the official entomologists to have shipped to this country consignments of the natural enemies of our injurious insects who have not been already provided with parasitic foes. The orange and lemon orchards of California would have been completely destroyed by the white scale had not Dr. Howard introduced its natural enemies from Australia. The control of the Mexican boll weevil by the introduction of parasites has saved the cotton-growing industry from virtual destruction.

The following are a few of the concrete items for which Dr. Howard is responsible as the head of the Bureau: A saving to the farmers of over $100,000,000 annually in wheat values through a knowledge of the methods of controlling or avoiding the Hessian fly; increasing the value of the apple crop of the country from $6,000,000 to $8,000,000 annually through a knowledge, as yet incomplete, of how to control the coddling moth; the saving of uncomputed millions annually to the corn-growers by the partial baffling of the root worm through the use of the principle of the rotation of crops. In recognition of this man's services to his country Congress in 1904 raised his salary from $3,000 to $4,000 a year.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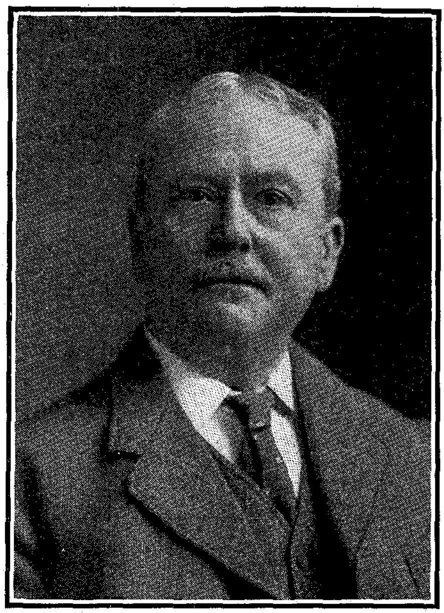
GIFFORD PINCHOT
Chief of the Forest Service

Gifford Pinchot, chief of the Forest Service, is one of the few Government scientists who has won popular as well as professional fame. This fame, rather than having been sought, however, has been, as it were, an unavoidable by-product of the magnitude and pioneer nature of his work. While Mr. Pinchot and I were walking together in Washington not long ago, we met a certain Senator, who announced his intention of retiring and exchanging a turbulent public for a quiet private life. When Mr. Pinchot expostulated with him, he replied, "Oh, we can't all be patriots and give up our lives to the Government!" That is just what Mr. Pinchot has done since he entered the Government service in 1898 as the chief of the Division of Forestry, and just what he will continue to do unless his enemies succeed in dislodging him. At that time there were eleven men in the Division, the annual appropriation was about $25,000. The first forest reserves had just been created by executive order of President Cleveland on the recommendation of a forest commission of which Mr. Pinchot was the most active member. The Division had been jogging along for about eighteen years without any appreciable growth. During the eleven years of Mr. Pinchot's administration the force has increased from 11 to 3,000, the extent of the National forests from 40,000,000 odd to 194,500,467 acres (an acreage equivalent to the entire area of many countries), the revenues from nothing to almost $2,000,000, and the annual appropriations from $25,000 to about $4,000,000.

Just as Mr. Pinchot is one of the most widely known and popular of Government officials, so he is perhaps the worst hated. His position and the use he has made of it have made him to a peculiar degree the champion of the rights of the whole people as against the selfish interests of the few. His fight against wasteful methods of lumbering raised up against him powerful lumber interests. What did they care about posterity or the future of the Nation? Like Louis XV, their motto was, "After me the deluge," except that in this case the deluge was to be literal as well as figurative. Their voice was promptly heard against him in Congress. His fight against fraudulent mining claims brought down upon him the equally bitter hostility of large speculative mining interests. They had been securing titles to large tracts of alleged mining lands where there were, in fact, no mines at all. Pinchot made them prove their assertions before receiving their titles. Their voice, too, was soon heard against him in Congress. He made the cattle and sheep men pay reasonable fees to the Government for the privilege of using public lands as grazing lands for their flocks and herds. He saw the injustice of allowing the lands belonging to the whole people to be used for the special benefit of a privileged few. The privileged few claimed they were being robbed of an inalienable right. Their voice also was angrily heard against him in Congress. Finally he clashed with those who threaten to be his most powerful foes—the men whose every energy is bent upon securing outright and in perpetuity the water power of the entire country. Mr. Pinchot claims that this gigantic power is an inalienable right of the whole people, which the Government may only lease to individuals for reasonably short periods. The power of their voice against him in Congress is commensurate with the titanic project they have at stake. Their feeling toward Gifford Pinchot may be inferred from the fact that it is he who, more than any other man, stands between them and the mightiest monopoly that the dreams of power and avarice have ever pictured.

FROM A PAINTING. PHOTOGRAPH BY CLINEDINST
DR. LELAND O. HOWARD
Chief of the Bureau of Entomology in the Department of Agriculture

Mr. Pinchot is a man, too, who knows physical hardship as well as the hardship of being constantly harassed and thwarted in a great public work. There are few men indeed in this day of comfort who know cold and danger and hunger and even starvation as he does. Some years ago, in crossing the Sierra Nevadas in the course of some forest investigations, he nearly starved to death. By the statement of Secretary Wilson, of the Department of Agriculture, Mr. Pinchot's chief, the Forest Service has, under Mr. Pinchot's administration, added vastly more to the National wealth than its total cost. And the man who has done all this was



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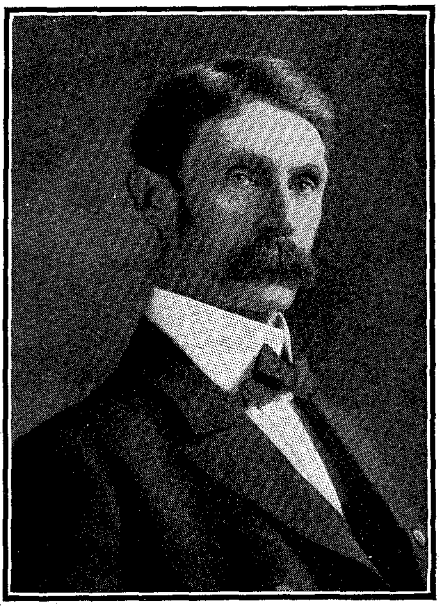
JAMES C. COURTS

Clerk to the Committee on Appropriations of the House of Representatives

born rich, inherited millions, and might have given himself up to a life of yachting, automobiling, and society. There are many men, whose patriotism is hardly more than a Fourth of July emotion, who sincerely wish he had.

Just as Gifford Pinchot is one of the most eminent practical scientists connected with the Government, so Dr. Theodore Gill is one of the most eminent scientific scholars. Dr. Gill is an honorary associate of the Smithsonian Institution and National Museum. He holds the most unique and anomalous position in the most unique and anomalous branch of the Government service. The Smithsonian is a private institution maintained by the endowment left by its founder, Mr. Smithson. It has been appropriated by the Government as our National Museum, and its policy is controlled by a board of trustees composed of the President of the United States and the members of his Cabinet, plus the Secretary of the Institution itself, who is the active executive. Dr. Gill is the only member of the staff of this quasi-public institution who serves the Government without salary and has no specific duties. Were the institution entirely governmental he would be acting illegally in serving gratuitously, as such service was prohibited by a Congressional statute enacted some half-dozen years ago. Because of his merely quasi-official status, he is beneficently permitted to contribute his services without remuneration. Dr. Gill is a zoölogist. According to no less an authority than Dr. David Starr Jordan, he is the world's greatest authority on fishes. So great is his knowledge of all the natural sciences, as well as political economy and history, that he is commonly considered the most learned man connected with the Government. He first went to the Smithsonian to take up his researches in 1861. In 1865 he was appointed librarian, which post he held until 1875. During this ten-year period of his forty-eight years of service he received a small salary.

Beside being a constructive thinker Dr. Gill is a human encyclopædia. Although he has made substantial and authoritative contributions to science in the form of books, official bulletins, and articles, perhaps his chief work has been in advising and helping other scholars, whether Government officials or private investigators. The great reservoir of his knowledge he has always placed freely at the disposal



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DR. JOSEPH A. HOLMES

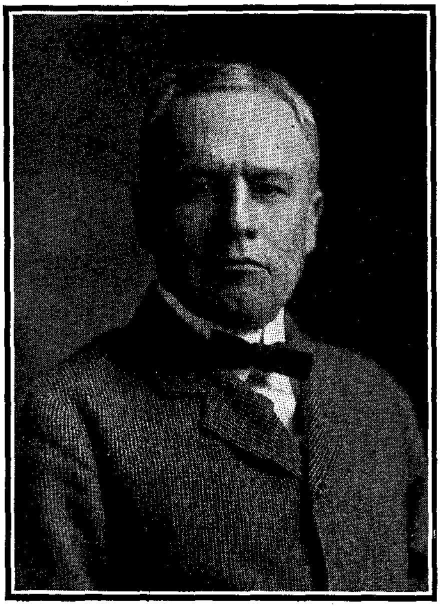
Head of the Technologic Branch of the Geological Survey in the Department of the Interior of whoever wished to draw upon it for any useful purpose. Thus his wide learning has been of constant and invaluable service, not only to the Smithsonian and to the scientists in the regular Government service, but to scholars throughout the country, and even beyond the seas.

Dr. Gill's workshop is in the east tower of the Smithsonian building. Here he works amid the scholarly accumulations of forty-eight years. Nothing has ever been arranged or dusted. He revels in the ultimate chaos of the completely emancipated bachelor scholar. He can still get in and out by picking his way circuitously, and he boasts naïvely that the things he uses most are on top. Some years ago he mislaid in this room a book which he was proof-reading, and rather than look it up he had it reprinted from the original manuscript. He is a man of comfortable independent means. Like many honestly public-spirited men, he vigorously repudiates altruistic motives, and claims that he works for his own profit and pleasure.

In his article entitled "The Cost of Coal in Human Lives," in a recent issue of The Outlook, Mr. Robert Watchorn vividly pictures the appalling and unnecessary loss of life in our coal mines. In concluding, he points out the urgent need of a champion for the American miners such as was Lord Shaftesbury for those of England. At least one champion has already come to the rescue of the American miner. He is Dr. Joseph A. Holmes, the expert in charge of the Technologic Branch of the Geological Survey in the Department of the Interior.

Dr. Holmes was born in South Carolina in 1859. While still a boy he was one of the rescuers at a terrible mine disaster not far from his home. The horrible death of the entombed miners and the anguish of the women and children made an indelible impression upon his mind. He resolved that he would some day do something to lessen the horror and frequency of such disasters. After graduating from Cornell he became Professor of Geology and Natural History in the University of North Carolina. Later he was for thirteen years Geologist of the State. Having built up through these years a National reputation not only as a mining expert but as a man of rare power as a leader of men, he was in 1904 appointed the Chief of the Department of Mines at the St. Louis Exposition. From that post he came to his present position in the Federal Government—a position which was created because he had demonstrated its urgent need. Dr. Holmes is now the leading authority in this country on mine disasters and their prevention. Before entering the Government service he traveled extensively in the mining districts of Europe. He found that we were killing in our mines five or six times as many proportionately as were these districts. He found that we were extracting a much smaller percentage of the possible output before abandoning our mines, and that our methods of combustion were wasting a much larger proportion of coal. He found that the waste of material and the waste of human life went hand in hand. When these older countries had been wasting their economic resources as we now do, they were also wasting in like degree the lives of their workers. Finally, he found that in every case the Governments had eventually been forced to take a hand in order to prevent needless waste of both men and resources.

Armed with all these compelling facts, he succeeded in securing from Congress



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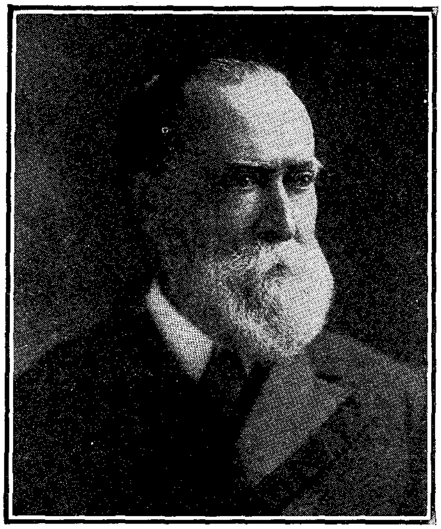
GAILLARD HUNT

Chief of Bureau of Manuscripts in the Library of Congress an appropriation with which to open the Technologic Branch of the Geological Survey. The work of the branch, like most of the other scientific work of the Government, is educational and advisory rather than mandatory. It devises and recommends methods for extracting the maximum amount of coal or metals from given beds, the methods of combustion which will produce the minimum of waste, the methods to be employed to reduce to a minimum the danger of explosions, and, finally, the methods of rescue after an explosion has occurred. This part of the work is done by the Government Rescue Corps, which was organized a year ago. There is a rescue station at Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, and another at Urbana, Illinois. This corps has already given training to practical miners, saved many lives, and made recommendations which will mean the saving of hundreds more. When one realizes the large salaries paid to eminent mining experts, it is not difficult to imagine the financial sacrifice which a man like Dr. Holmes is making in doing this great work on a Government salary which is altogether inadequate.

By no means all of the notable and disinterested work for the Government is being done by the scientists. Their work is merely more noticeable because their contributions to the prosperity of the country are in most cases more direct. In the non-scientific work of the Government, however, there are many men as able, as disinterested, and as indispensable as the best of the scientists. Conspicuous among such men is Alvey Augustus Adee, Second Assistant Secretary of State. Mr. Adee has been called the permanent under secretary of the State Department. While this is true, it gives the wrong impression. It gives the impression that the position is one the occupant of which has a permanent tenure. On the contrary, it is Mr. Adee that is permanent, and not the office. It is, in fact, frankly a political position in the gift of the President, and is supposed to change on the advent of each new President. Purely by making his services indispensable has Mr. Adee made this temporary office permanent so far as he is concerned. He has held it now for twenty-three years. He has been an official of the Department since 1878. He entered the Diplomatic Service as Secretary of Legation at Madrid in 1870. He speaks and writes fluently French, German, Italian, and Spanish, is a master in the subtle use of his own tongue, and has a smattering of various other languages. He knows more about diplomacy in general and our foreign relations in particular than any other man in America. It is owing chiefly to this man, modest to the point of self-effacement, that America has maintained during the past generation a foreign policy so consecutive and consistent as to excite world-wide comment and admiration. During all this time it is improbable that any Secretary of State, with the possible exception of Secretary Gresham, ever entered upon any important diplomatic action without first securing the advice of Mr. Adee. Secretary Root has frankly confessed that he never took an important diplomatic step without first consulting Mr. Adee. During some of the most crucial weeks of the Boxer troubles in China Mr. Adee, on the appointment of President McKinley, was Secretary of State *ad interim*. Secretary Day had resigned, and Mr. Hay needed some time to conclude his ambassadorial duties in London before taking charge of the State Department. During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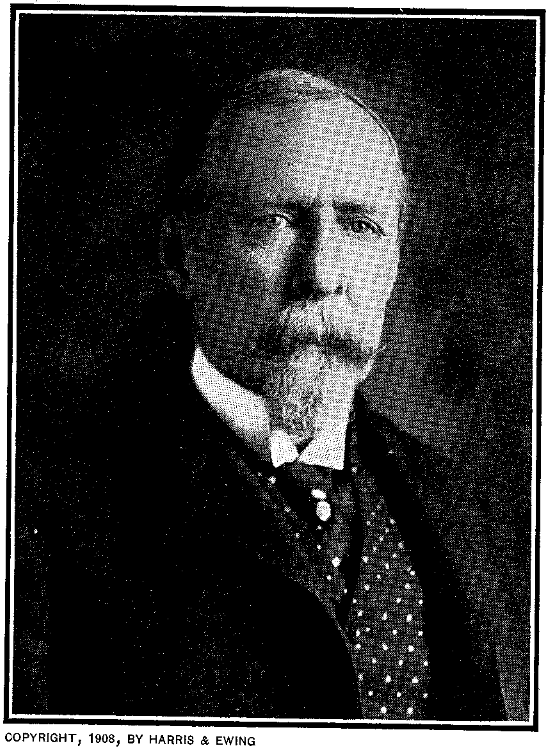
DR. THEODORE GILL
Of the Smithsonian Institution

this time Mr. Adee literally lived in his office. He received and sent despatches day and night. He kept his hand on the throttle day and night. He scarcely ever left his office except to go to the White House and report to President McKinley. Mr. Adee's work at this time unquestionably was a very large factor in the successful and highly creditable rôle which we played among the Powers at this time. Just how large it is impossible to say, since, after his custom, he hastened to efface himself and to shift the entire credit upon his new chief, Secretary Hay.

Many of the diplomatic notes which have established or readjusted our relations with this or that nation at critical periods have been written by Mr. Adee and then signed and despatched without alteration by the Secretary or President. Adee was the only man who could write a despatch which President Cleveland would sign without change. One of Mr. Adee's minor functions is to write the President's addresses of welcome to foreign emissaries. These the President either reads or memorizes.

In private life Mr. Adee is a Shakespearean scholar, a bicyclist, a photographer, a *raconteur*, and a wit. He has a slight impediment in his speech which serves rather to add piquancy to his humor. Not long ago Mr. Gaillard Hunt, formerly chief of the Bureau of Citizenship of the State Department and now chief of the Bureau of Manuscripts in the Library of Congress, went to see him about transferring certain documents from the Department to the Library. He said, "Mr. Adee, there is a provision of law which entitles us to withdraw from the Departments all ancient, historical, and no longer useful material." Mr. Adee replied, "If that is so, you will have to take me along too." At another time a friend who had been ill told Adee that he could scarcely drag one foot after the other. "Then you should be thankful that you are not a centipede and don't have ninety-nine feet to drag one after the other," comfortingly retorted Adee.



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ALVEY AUGUSTUS ADEE
Second Assistant Secretary of State

And this man, who plays so large, if not conspicuous, a part in guiding the destinies of this great Nation, now receives a salary of forty-five hundred dollars. He used to receive much less.

The man in the legislative branch of the Government who most nearly matches Adee in the State Department in point of indispensableness is Mr. James C. Courts, clerk to the Committee on Appropriations of the House of Representatives. When, some years ago, Congress advanced Mr. Courts's salary from three to four thousand dollars, a Government official said to Speaker Cannon, "I am very glad to see you have raised Courts's salary." To which the Speaker rejoined: "Why, if we gave Courts what he's worth it would demoralize the whole public service." While Mr. Courts has no official advisory voice, as has Mr. Adee, he has, nevertheless, for a generation contributed to the continuity of the policy of successive Committees on Appropriations, somewhat as Mr. Adee has given continuity to the policy of successive Secretaries of State.

He is, as it were, the continuous memory of this Committee. He is a retiring and unassuming man, who never volunteers advice on anything, but whose advice is sought on everything. For instance, during an early Congressional term of the late Thomas Reed it was proposed to give the Speaker's clerk some extra compensation for some special services he had rendered the House. Mr. Reed objected, on the ground that such action was unprecedented. The advocate of the proposal protested that it was not unprecedented, but Mr. Reed was obdurate. Finally, appeal was made to Courts, who replied that there were precedents for such action. Mr. Reed immediately withdrew his objection, saying, "Oh, if Courts says it's all right, of course it must be." Courts has practically drafted every appropriation bill from the seventies, when the Government was spending annually six hundred millions odd, to the present time, when the appropriations exceed two billion dollars. He carries in his head in a general way the amount of the chief items and for what they were expended, where and when the chief reductions and increases were made, and for what reasons. He knows the approximate governmental expenditures now, and for years back, for most of the myriad purposes from Alaska to the Philippines, from the Atlantic to the Pacific. If three millions is wanted for a public building in Chicago, he remembers that an exactly similar building was constructed for two millions in New York. If a hundred-thousand-dollar item which was appropriated for a certain purpose has been expended for a somewhat different object, he always knows it, and calls the fact to the attention of the Committee. If the estimate of a certain Bureau Chief is being heavily cut through misapprehension of its true purpose, he corrects the misunderstanding. If an unnecessarily large sum is asked for by another chief, he points out that a much smaller sum has previously accomplished satisfactorily the desired result. Everything that he does not remember he knows just where and how to look up. As said Representative Shirley, of the Committee, he is the "additional memory, the constant informant, the valued adviser, and the right-hand man of every member of the Committee." And Mr. Courts is perhaps the only man in the public service of equal value whose work is always and absolutely anonymous.

A sketch such as this should not be closed without some mention of the work of the officers of the Public Health and Marine Hospital Service. In this service heroism and self-effacement in the public interest appear to be almost a drug on the market. In conversation with the writer, Surgeon-General Wyman casually mentioned some officer who had never had yellow fever requesting to be sent to fight a yellow fever epidemic. Upon my innocently commenting upon this as an exceptional example of heroism, he replied: "Oh, not exceptional at all. He wanted to have the fever and become an immune so that he would be more serviceable in the future. Most of them want the opportunity." It is the rule and not the exception for these officers to seek opportunities to risk their lives with the odds heavily against them. In glancing over a card catalogue in the offices of the Service I came upon this record: "Surgeon Robert Drake Murray; salary $3,500; birth April 21, 1845; appointment April 25, 1872; last promotion February 21, 1889; field of duty, Marine Hospital, Tortugas Quarantine and Immigration Inspections, Key West, Florida; special qualifications, medicine and surgery, epidemic work without growling, one year study of law, taught medicine four years, never failed or flinched in duty." Dr. Murray was killed in an accident at Laredo, Texas, November 22, 1903, while fighting his twenty-fifth yellow fever epidemic. During the thirty-one years prior to his death he had fought yellow fever twenty-five times in fifty towns and in eleven States. He was secretary of the Thompson Yellow Fever Commission of 1878. Four years later he commanded the first armed Cordon Sanitaire, one hundred miles in length, at Brownsville, Texas. Both by his brother officers and the medical profession at large he came to be considered the leading yellow fever expert in the country. In the files, too, I came across a letter from a member of the Board of Health of Brunswick, Georgia, to the Surgeon-General in regard to Surgeon Murray's handling of a yellow fever epidemic there in 1893. He says: "When Surgeon Murray arrived here, two days after the disease had been declared epidemic, the community remaining in the city were panic-stricken." Later he says: "The change from this condition of panic to that of thorough confidence was the feeling impressed upon the people—that the man for the occasion was here. Dr. Murray at no time spared himself; active, vigilant, almost sleepless, by an irresistible impulse he acquired the title of 'Our Sleepless Guardian.'" While Surgeon Murray may, at the time of his death, have excelled his brother officers in experience and skill, his story as here suggested may be taken as fairly typical of the career of a surgeon in the Public Health and Marine Hospital Service. There are now one hundred and twenty-nine officers in this service. A bill to increase their salaries to the same amounts as are paid to the military medical officers of the army and the navy has recently failed of passage in Congress. Their salaries have not been increased for a generation. During that time, according to the most conservative interpretation of the figures gathered by the Federal Bureau of Labor, living expenses have at least doubled.

Most of the other under officials of the Government are in practically the same position. Their expenses have doubled while their salaries have remained practically stationary, with but few exceptions. However admirable it may be in these men to serve their country at such personal sacrifice, it certainly is not admirable in the Government to permit it. Such an attitude is too much like that of the big, hulking man who, as he smoked his pipe and watched his aged mother carry in the wood, said: "I tell you, I'm proud of my mother. She's over eighty an' she can still carry in all her own wood."

AT NIGHT—A VIOLIN

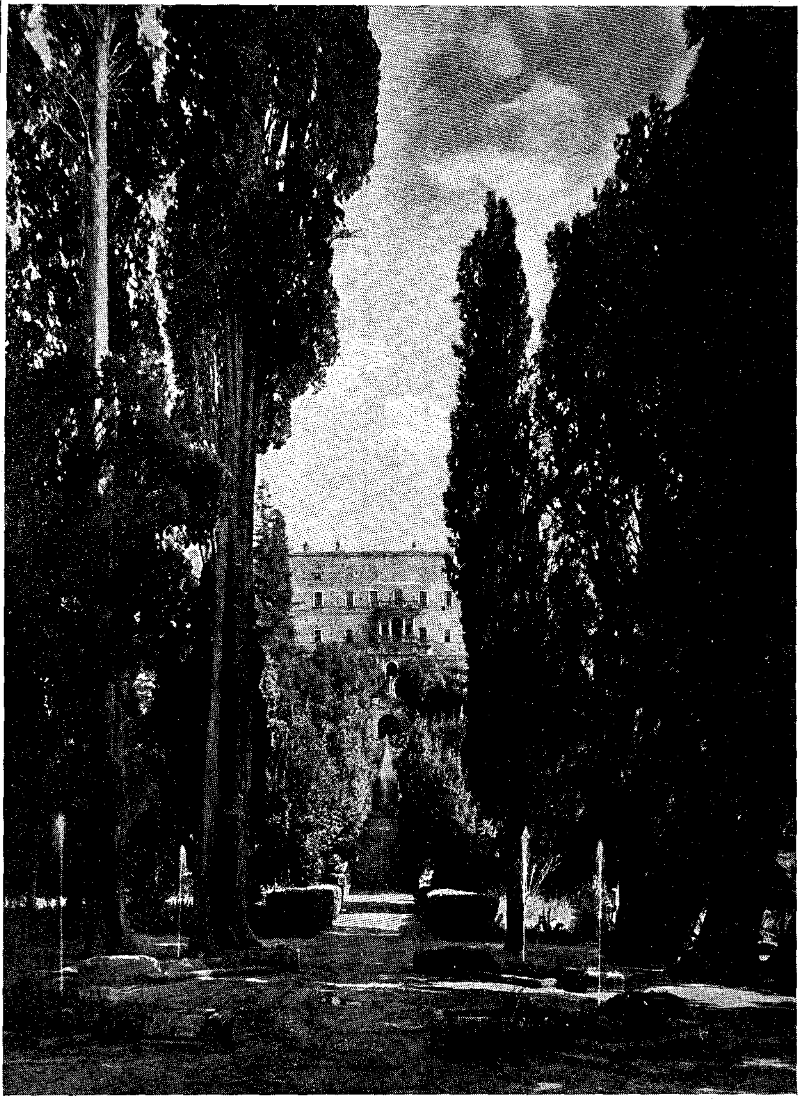
BY WANDA PETRUNKEVITCH

Thou hast, soul mine, brought gentle comforting
Since we, held by the somber spell
Of wind and rain and evening bell,
Leaned to the darkness, waiting, listening:

The tall black houses, too, meseemed did wait
Till, where a window opened bright
Its square of gold upon the night,
A violin began, low, passionate,

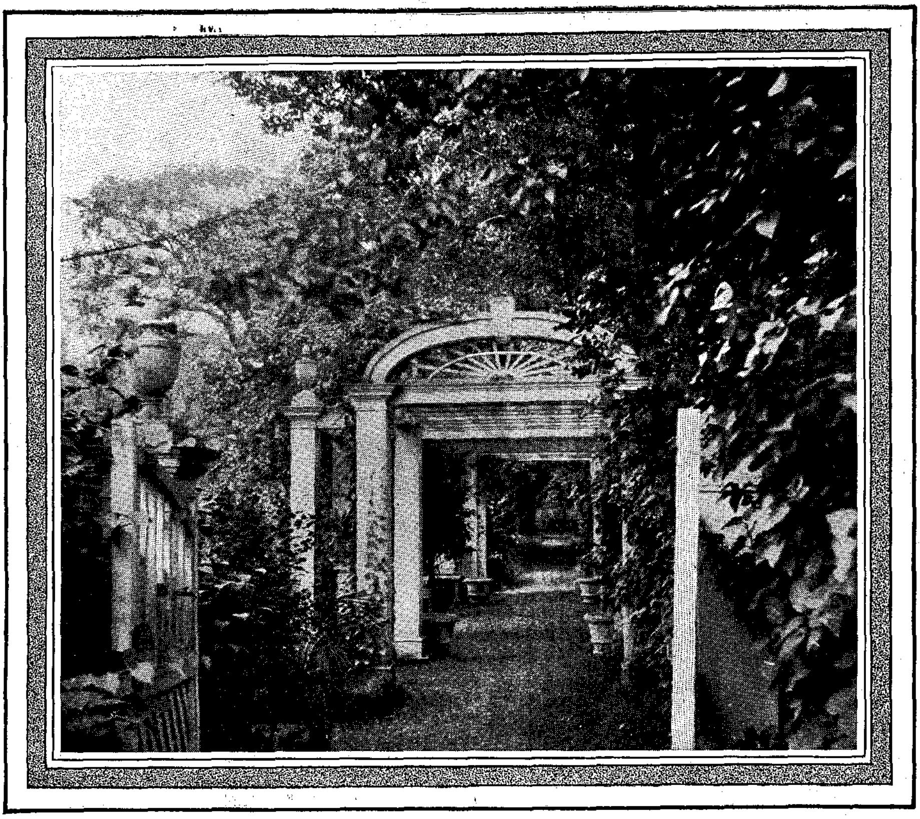
A charmèd theme so wilding strange and sweet,
So magical a melody,
It summoned, wistful spirit, thee,
A starward pilgrim through the storm-bleak street,

To fair wide gardens in a dream-bound Spain
By music conjured, tone on tone,
Fountain and bower and carvèd stone,
Lost now in wind and rain, soft drip of rain.



THE VILLA D'ESTE AT TIVOLI, ITALY

This picture shows the importance of preserving the line of axis in the co-ordinated work of the architect and the landscape gardener. If the right planting is used, the result, as in many Italian villas of the Renaissance, will be more and more perfect the older the gardens become. The fundamental note, the best inspiration, we get to-day for the immediate treatment about dwellings is Italian. The Italian idea was the expression of cultivated life as applied to the landscape through its formal treatment. They made the outside surroundings of the house fit into the decorum of life as the hallway or any of the rooms of the house would have done.



ARBOR AND GATEWAY AT THE LONGFELLOW HOUSE, CAMBRIDGE

Landscape Gardening

A Conversation

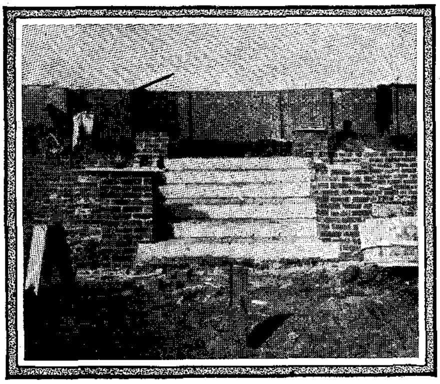
Landscape gardening is a new art in the comprehension of Americans. Ancient as it is in European countries, we know it in the United States, for the most part, only as an occasional adjunct to architecture—a bit of by-play for the serious business of constructing houses. As an independent art requiring special gifts and training, working with special authority, it is still all but unheard of by many Americans. This is a pity. For while as a people we have made great strides in architecture in the last twenty-five years, while indeed American architecture is said by even good European judges to be more alive, more spontaneous, and more creative than the architecture of any European country, our splendid public buildings and our elaborate and beautiful private dwellings are too often spoilea in their effect by their immediate surroundings. A French château, which ought to be surrounded by a beautiful park, is placed in the middle of a small city block; an English manor-house that should be sheltered by shrubbery and trees, and approached by skillfully arranged paths and drives, is plumped upon an open, bare seaside " building site" no *larger than an acre; even the simple village cottage which the skilled architect has tastefully planned is too frequently injured from the lack of a proper arrangement of flowers and vines and hedges. The art of landscape gardening is not something to be called into action only when a great park or an expensive and spacious estate is to be planned; its principles and its achievements may be invoked to aid the builder of the most modest country home. Landscape gardening has an important part to play in the social as well as in the æsthetic development of the United States. Miss Martha Brookes Brown, a well-known landscape architect of New York City, has described this function of landscape gardening in a striking sentence: "There is yet a great field to be entered upon in beautifying our commonplace, unutterably crude American village streets, and in instilling into the minds of the men and women who live in them a comparatively simple remedy for their sordid, unhomelike effect; the untutored public must learn by example to feel the need of beauty in simple growth correctly applied." For some months past The Outlook has been endeavoring to get some definitions and information concerning the profession whose members are engagea in so profound a task—the task of promoting round about the American home "the beauty of simple growth correctly applied." Such definitions, however, are difficult to obtain, for the expert in any art or science is so familiar with the elementary facts of his profession that in describing it he takes these facts for granted and employs language and even ideas which are too technical and too advanced for the average layman; it is as if he talked in algebraic terms to one to whom even elementary arithmetic was a sealed book. After considerable but unsuccessful effort to obtain an article which should tell the ordinary reader something about the purposes of the profession of landscape gardening in this country, the plan was finally hit upon of having an informal conversation between a member of the editorial staff of The Outlook and a practicing landscape gardener taken down stenographically. It is hoped that the following notes of such a conversation held recently in the workroom of one of the well-known landscape architects of New York will arouse some interest among our readers in a profession which is as old as ancient Rome, and yet which in America may be called one of the newest of the new. The views here given show some of the landscape gardening work of Miss Martha Brookes Brown.*

"I REPRESENT," said the Editor, "the intelligent popular ignorance on the subject of landscape gardening. So far as I have observed, the average American citizen, even the educated American citizen who has some taste and some interest in beauty, has generally regarded landscape gardening as a kind of trowel and wheelbarrow trade—possibly a little higher in the scale than kitchen gardening, but not much. This is, of course, an exaggerated way of putting it, and yet to a large extent I represent that view. My talks with you during the past six months have given me an inkling that landscape gardening is a science as well as an art—that it should perhaps be called 'landscape architecture.'"

"I should say," broke in the Landscape Gardener, "that while it is distinctly a science and an art, I do not see that the term 'architecture' necessarily belongs to it. 'Landscape Gardening' is the old accepted term that has come down from generation to generation, and it is the term that I prefer for this reason: Landscape gardening is not a tradesman's craft, nor is it an architectural craft, although of course it embraces some of the principles of architecture. The term Landscape Architecture has been employed primarily in an effort to give it a sort of dignity in the popular mind."

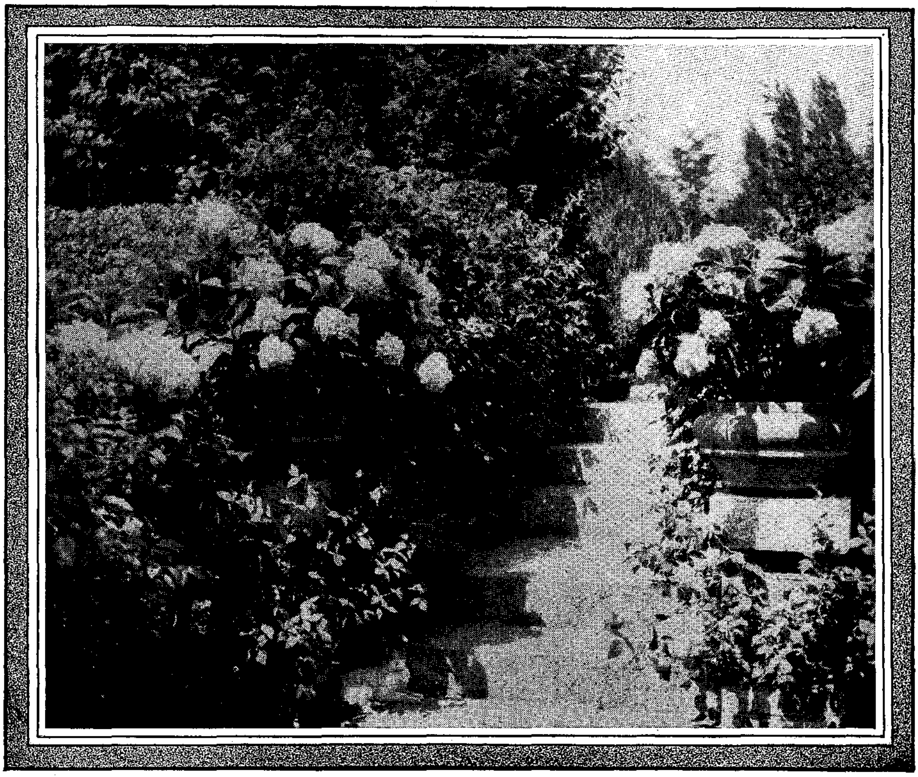
"To go back to the intelligent-ignorant American whom I am presupposing," said the Editor. "Let us start with the understanding that he is to be made to consider landscape gardening as a science and an art of the first order. I have been looking up the matter a little in reference books, and I find that landscape gardening as an art and science is as old as the Christian era. The Romans practiced it. Pliny writes of it. In some of his most delightful letters he describes his villa and its garden, giving a hint of the civilization that went with it. But I suppose it may be said that the most beautiful formal gardens have been made by the Italians—that is to say, that the Italians were the creators of modern landscape gardening."

"The Italians might be called the originators of the outdoor expression of personal requirement brought down to formal, restricted lines," replied the Landscape Gardener. "The Italians can hardly lay claim to all modern landscape gardening, for they had nothing to do with the sweeps of lawns which were later introduced by the English, for instance."



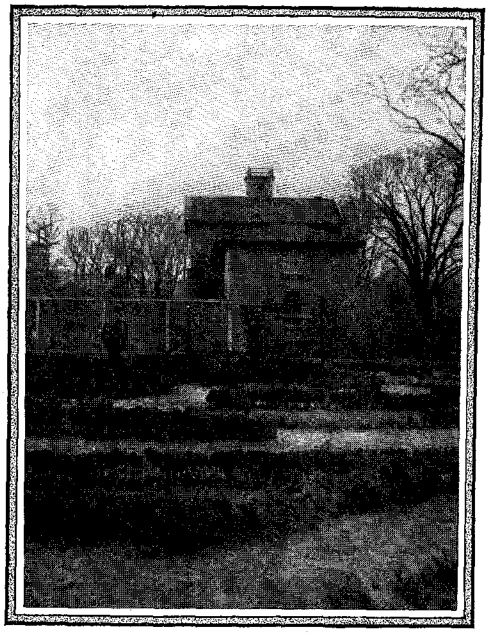
"Let me see if I understand you," said the Editor. "In the field of music the Italians were the creators of modern opera. The Germans first, and now the French, have vastly improved on the Italian art of the opera. They have enlarged its scope and added new phases, but still one may say that the Italians were the creators, the originators, of modern opera. May one say in the same sense that the Italians were the originators of modern landscape gardening, which the English to some extent, and now the Americans, are extending, developing, and improving?"

"Yes," assented the Landscape Gardener. "The funda-



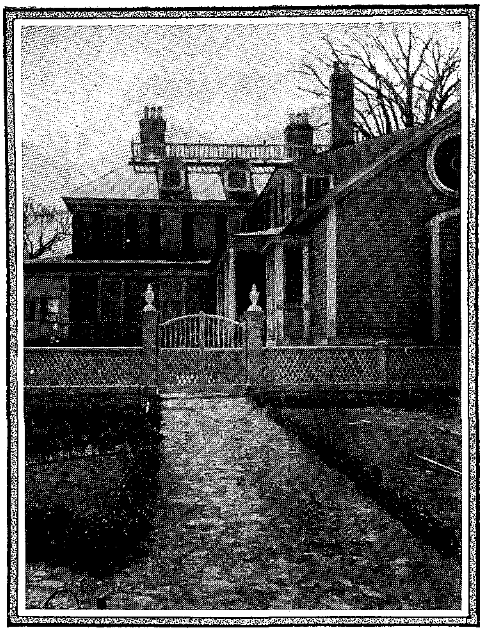
A GARDEN DETAIL IN THE MAKING AND COMPLETED

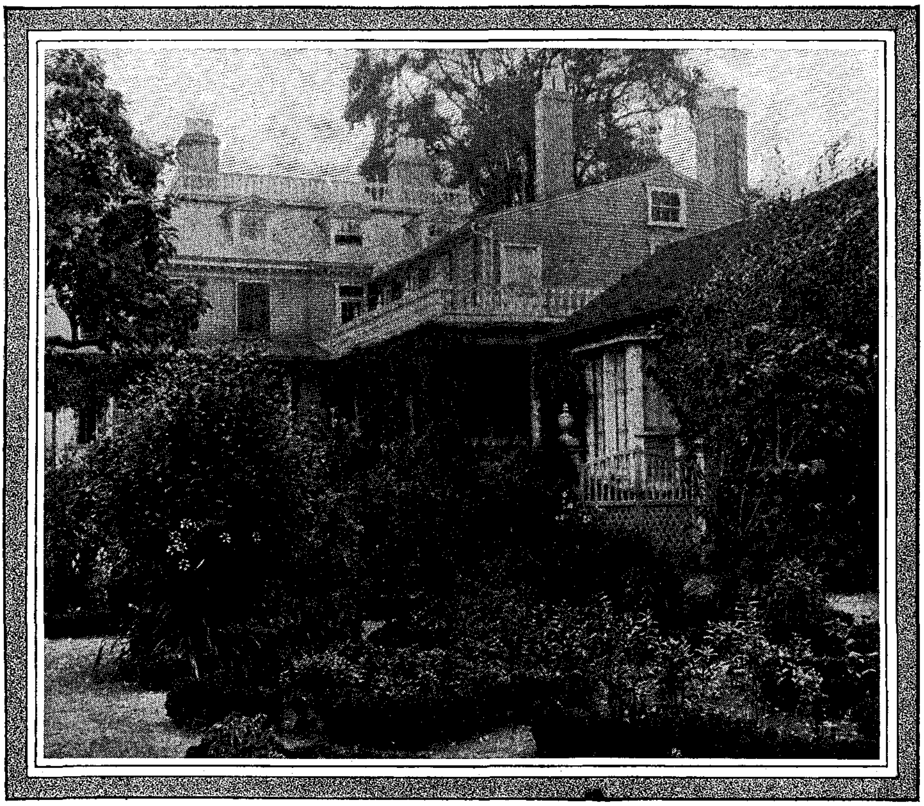
One of the three flights of steps leading from the herbaceous garden to the rose garden on a place at Newburyport, Massachusetts



SCREENING THE STABLE FROM GARDEN AND HOUSE

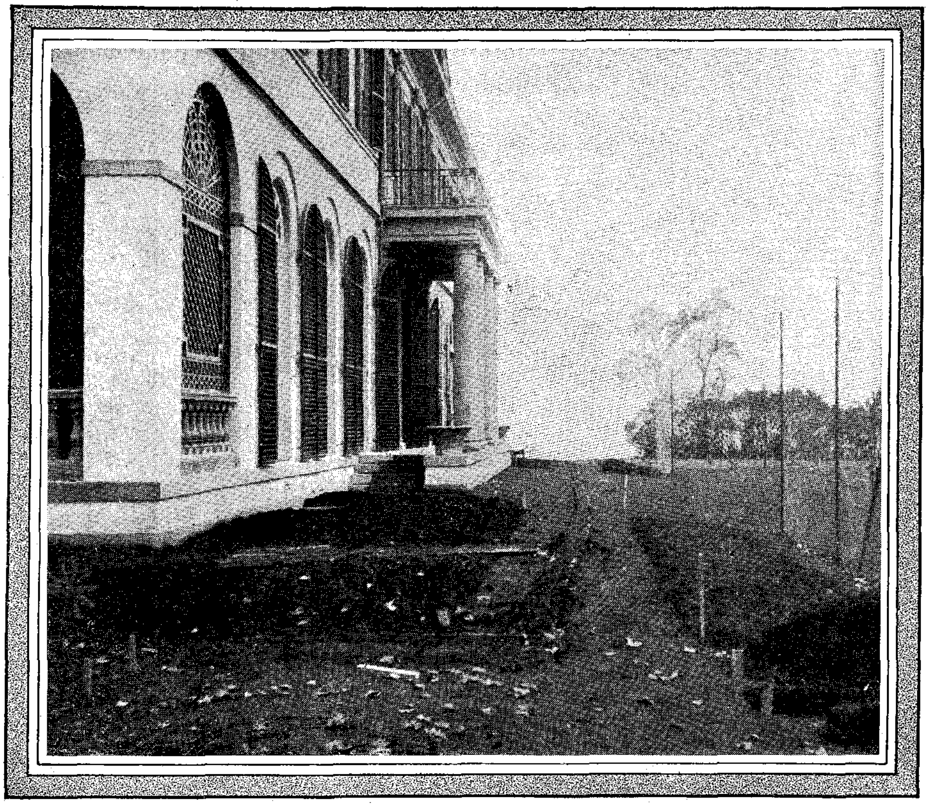
These views across the garden show how the work side of the home life may be separated from the play side





WHAT CAN BE ACCOMPLISHED BY PLANTING ABOUT THE HOUSE

Two views taken three years apart. The second picture shows how by judicious planting the house may be masked and house and garden given unity



PLANTING ABOUT THE HOUSE

A place at Pride's Crossing, Massachusetts, which was improved as shown on the opposite page

mental note, the best inspiration, we get to-day for the immediate treatment about dwellings is Italian. The Italian idea was the expression of cultivated life as applied to the landscape through its formal treatment. They made the outside surroundings of the house fit into the decorum of life as the hallway or any of the rooms of the house would have done. To that idea the English began to add the note of what may be called 'pure landscape,' the curving line, the great sweeps, the vistas, as well as the architectural effect of the Italian garden."

"I assume, then," said the Editor, "that the function of the landscape gardener, artist, or architect, to use all three terms—the function of the American garden architect, if I may coin that name—is to apply the Italian idea of domestic decorum to the English idea of sweeping lines, with their masses of splendid trees and shrubbery, in a harmonious combination. So that, just as in building architecture the American has absorbed and combined the fundamental ideas of other civilizations, he is doing the same to-day in landscape gardening. The American landscape gardener is in reality creating a new art based upon certain correct scientific and æsthetic principles. May it not be said that the untrained individual has no more right to attempt to solve the problems of planting a place than he has to attempt to practice medicine without training for his diploma, or to attempt to compose music without proper education and preparation?"

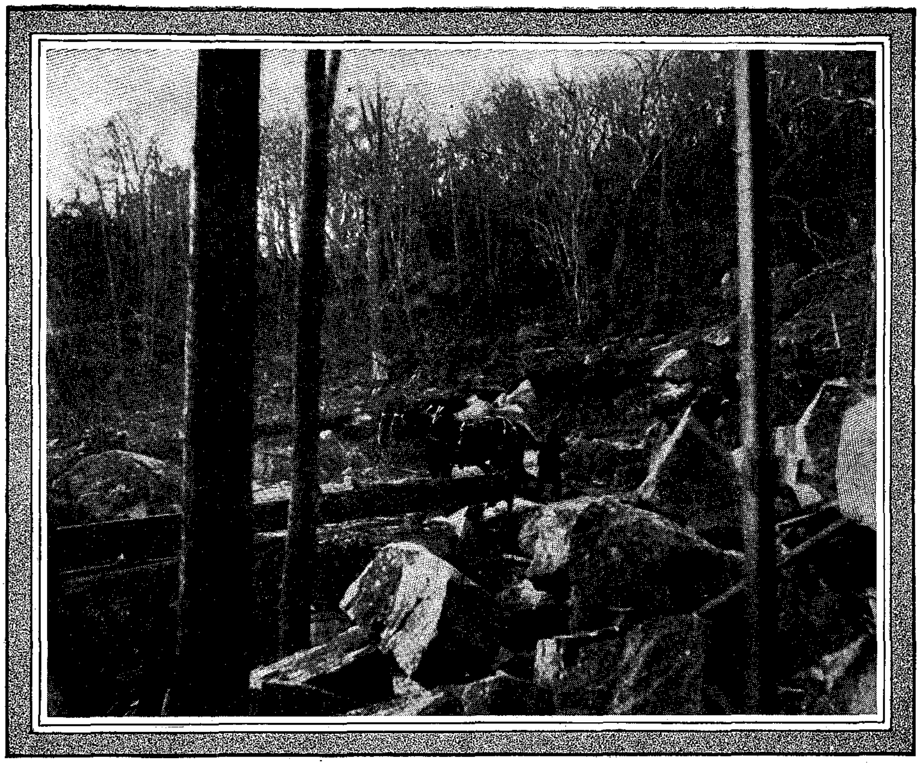
"Certainly not as a professional undertaking, any more than the Landscape Gardener would have a right to assume the responsibility of building a house. If you think you can go ahead and build a house without an architect, what is the result? Your rooms lack proportion, your doors and windows are in the wrong places, your scheme as a whole lacks the style and balance which only training can pro-

PLANTING ABOUT THE HOUSE

This shows the softening effect of two years' growth in the planting close to the house

duce, and a beautiful whole is not created. So if you plant a garden or an estate without knowledge, you will find ten years after the original planting that you planted the wrong things for your soil, for the temperature and climatic conditions of the locality, and for the ultimate effect that was needed—and valuable time has been lost. That is why I object to the architect who, with no training except in architecture, undertakes the planting scheme of a garden as a side issue to a house he is building. This is, however, seldom done. The only way this can be done is by calling upon florists or nurserymen to provide the plants and shrubs which they think meet with the æsthetic description of the architect. The nurseryman is the man who deals in the materials with which the landscape gardener works. To rely upon him for the selection of varieties of plants which are to produce a definite effect and meet definite conditions is as if the portrait painter should call upon the dealer in pigments to paint the portrait which is to pass as the work of the painter. Nothing is more detrimental to the profession nor more unfair to a client than this casual advice for which one is not trained. The position of a garden relative to the house, its proportions and general scheme, is, however, as much the province of the architect as it is that of the landscape gardener. It is therefore often advantageous to have collaboration on this point."

"But," said the Editor, "there is a general impression that the average citizen cannot afford to employ a landscape gardener, that landscape gardening is for the rich only, for the great municipality, the great park, or for the public cemetery. I have just been reading an article in the Encyclopædia, and I was amused to see how this article dwelt on the peculiar function of landscape gardening in laying out cemeteries! The small house-builder would no more think of consulting a landscape architect in planning his little home



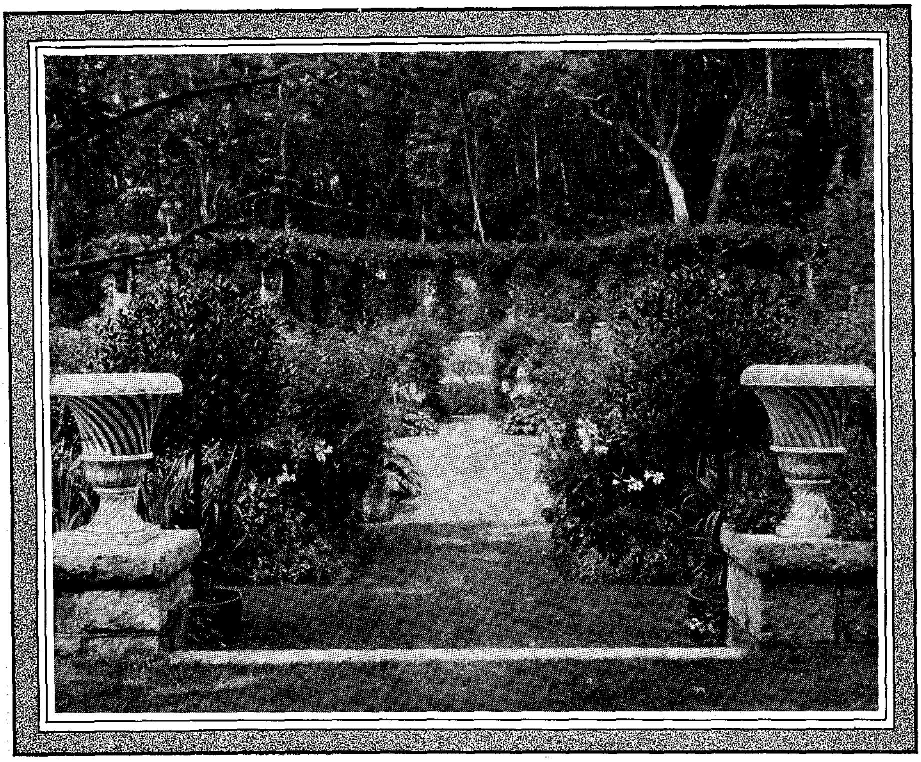
A FOUR YEARS' TRANSFORMATION (BEFORE)
A garden at Manchester, Massachusetts, in 1903, then a rocky, sloping grade, thickly wooded

than he would think of going to Tiffany's for table silver. What can you say that will illustrate the use of landscape gardening for the small householder?"

"That it is of the greatest necessity if we are ever to have attractive village streets and picturesque, homelike treatment. This will be when the day comes in this country when the eyes of the average man are so trained that he realizes a hopelessly crude thing when he sees it, and is distressed by it; when he feels the need of beauty in simple growth correctly applied. On the other hand, it is quite as important to have sense enough to see beauty in what may exist naturally and leave it alone.

"Some experiments might be tried, in order to establish a precedent which others would copy, of taking a section of a village street, including both sides, and, through some co-operative arrangement, carry out a plan for the treatment of it as a whole, each house being considered in the general plan. The expense to each householder could be reduced to the minimum. Here is an opportunity for the man who cares for beauty on his large estate to help in lending his interest to a scheme which would improve the whole town. Examples of this kind should be demonstrated generally to be possible to all the small householders, and I venture to say that the interest on their part and their co-operation would not be lacking. It is important, however, that the scheme as a whole, for which each is working, should be originated by a landscape gardener, and held to.

"Nothing is more destructive to the scope of usefulness of true landscape gardening than to have people feel that in some way great elaboration of detail is necessary. Over-elaboration of detail is destructive to beauty in any form of art, for that matter. Fortunately, we have nearly passed through such a period in architecture. We used to think we must have stone turrets and mansard roofs in order to have a beautiful house, and we built as a result those awful houses all along the Hudson River. We have gotten over that somewhat, and generally find both the



A FOUR YEARS' TRANSFORMATION (AFTER)
The same garden in 1907, showing what was accomplished by the right kind of landscape work

rich man and the man of moderate means who is now contented with the perfectly ordered, sympathetic, simple façade."

"But let me get back," interposed the Editor, "to this question as to whether the man of moderate means may consult a landscape gardener as a professional adviser. Americans have learned, after a painful experience, which produced some of the worst domestic architecture that the world has ever seen, that it is as necessary to employ a highly trained architect to build a bungalow that costs perhaps $2,000 as it is to build a great Newport villa. And the highly trained architect is willing to design a $2,000 bungalow. It may be that a great architect would not make the design, but he would have one of his assistants do it and would supervise it. The country has found that it can employ educated architects to do its simple things. Of course many people consult inferior architects, just as they will consult incompetent physicians or lawyers, but at any rate the idea has been thoroughly impressed upon their minds that they must employ architects and get elevations and specifications and plans. Do you have any hope that the time is coming when the home-builders of this country will in any considerable numbers turn to the landscape gardener as a necessary professional adviser? What indications of such a desirable state of affairs do you see?"

"Lots of clients," was the Landscape Gardener's answer.

"Yes," assented the Editor, "but most of your clients are, of course, people of great wealth."

"Not necessarily, not by any means necessarily, people of wealth in all cases. I could show you numbers of plans of little places—places on which the house is very near the street. You could not want anything more modest than that. The need of the art of landscape gardening applies to all people who have the taste and intelligence to let it meet the requirements and decorum of their own lives, however simply they may live."

"I am not quite sure," said the Editor, "that I understand exactly what you mean by 'the requirements and decorum of their own lives.'"

"I mean," said the Landscape Gardener, "that the different departments of life shall be respected and given their own proper places—that the work side shall be separated from the play side, the private side from the public side. To accomplish this one would try to arrange to have the stable and the service end of the house near together and as far as possible from the gardening part of the grounds, where the family lives its out-of-door life. The public highway should be cut off by hedges or plantings which make the full boundaries of the place as private as possible. If it can be arranged, a garden should not be seen from the entrance, as privacy is one of the greatest charms which a garden can have. For the same reason the service end of the house—the work side—should not look out upon the garden—the play side. The tradesman's entrance should be separated from the main entrance to avoid possible confusion between the different departments. If these points are considered, the ordered usefulness of the outside of the house becomes of as great importance as the arrangement of the different rooms inside the house. By careful planning the harmony and restfulness which are essential in the home, and in hardly less degree in the surroundings of the home, are easily maintained. And the landscape gardener's services are valuable to every one who has the taste and intelligence to want that harmony and restfulness without as well as within."

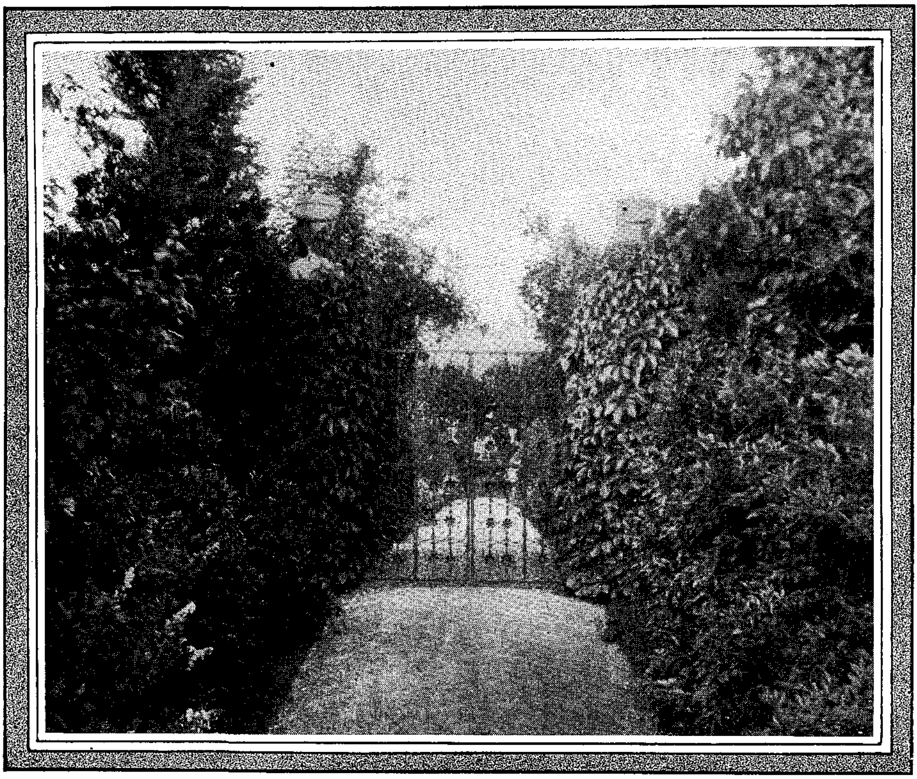
"But," persisted the Editor, "there is something more than a question of taste and intelligence involved; there is a problem of domestic economy. Let us take a concrete example. Supposing a man has bought an acre of land on Long Island, and has $10,000 which he wants to put into his home. He will, of course, consult an architect before he begins to build, but in your judgment is he justified in spending some of his $10,000 in consultation with a landscape gardener?"

"Of course," was the Landscape Gardener's reply, "if he has only $10,000 and proposes to spend the whole of that on the building of his house, he cannot spend anything on the treatment of his acre of ground; but if, after completing his house, he hopes, as I think he ought to hope, to beautify his grounds, then I should say it would be a wise thing for him at the outset to take a little from the original $10,000 for consultation with an expert landscape gardener, and find out just where the house ought to be placed, and what the general treatment should be, and then let the matter rest until he had saved enough money to expend upon his ultimate grading and planting in carrying out this treatment. The first step is to have a consultation. It is not so very expensive. Any one who can afford to build a $10,000 house can afford a consultation with a landscape gardener. The consultation may result in some kind of plan being made, and then the owner of the property can carry out that plan or not, just as he chooses. The result of the consultation can be even more simply indicated on the surveyor's map. The house, for instance, can be correctly placed, and then the owner will not find, when he wants to develop his acre, that he has placed his house too near the street or just one foot too high or one foot too low, as the case may be. It is really an economy for a man to have his house correctly placed in the first instance, and then, when he has any more money to spend, he can go ahead with his embellishments."

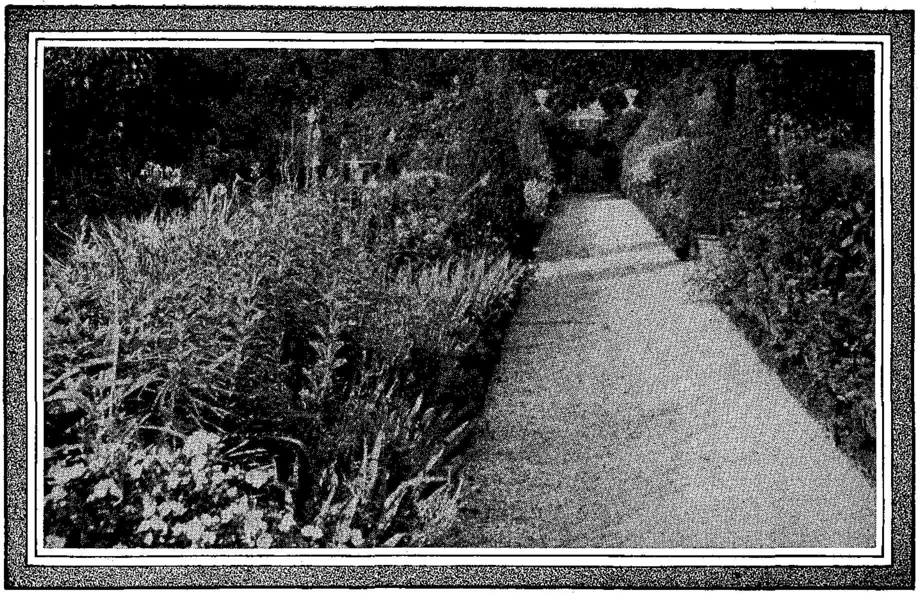
"There is another aspect of this subject," said the Editor, "upon which I think you can throw some light. If landscape gardening as a profession is really personal and domestic, and has an intimate relation with the social and civilized life of the country, a great responsibility rests upon the landscape gardener to obtain the right sort of training for his work. Suppose a young man or a young woman is interested in out-of-door life, and possesses as well the artistic and the architectural sense, what kind of education is necessary to fit such a person to become a landscape architect?"

"A limitless and never-ceasing study of growing things, to begin with," was the Landscape Gardener's unhesitating reply. "This must be taken in connection with a course of organized study in the different subjects which are necessary. For this, years are required. "When I say *knowledge* of growing things, it means not only of their æsthetic effect when they are half-grown (as seen in nurseries), but of their habits, their hardiness, the soil they need, the winds they will not stand, the exposures they like, and whether you want an effect made by them which is going to be perfect in two years, in ten years, in fifty years, or in a hundred years. If the effect you plan is for fifty years or a hundred years hence, you must know what you are going to plant to take their places while they are maturing. You must know the plants of quicker growth but of shorter life which will not in any way rob the important planting for ultimate effect of its best final condition. A knowledge is necessary of the qualities of form and color which will make a perfectly harmonious whole when the various trees and shrubs of your plantation are growing together; you must know what to use in order to make a dignified or a somber or a gay and vivacious planting; you must know how to combat salt spray at the seaside, or dry inland air in the highlands; all such questions as these apply to shrubs and trees. When it comes to flowers, a totally different series of questions is presented to the landscape gardener. In most cases a flower garden is expected to be in bloom from May until it is cut down by frost, generally early in November. There ought

BEFORE PLANTING

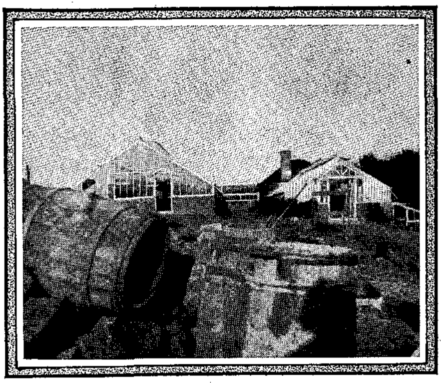

A GATEWAY AFTER PLANTING

Entrance to a garden at Newburyport, Massachusetts. The walk through the garden terminates in a similar gateway at the opposite end, beyond which are the greenhouses. This entrance is approached by the long walk from the house, planted with trees and native shrubs



THE TRANSFORMING EFFECT OF SIX YEARS' GROWTH

The continuation of the pathway shown on the preceding page. The greenhouses which in 1901 stood out boldly in view are completely hidden by hedges. This plan and that shown on the preceding page afford an excellent example of the principles of axis



BEFORE PLANTING

not to be one day in the life of that garden when it is not perfect as a whole. No perennial flower, as a rule, blooms for a longer period than about two weeks, and yet you require your garden to be in perfect bloom in its general effect for six months. The landscape gardener must, therefore, know how to provide for a regular and consistent succession of blossoms in a garden, and there is also not only the effect of blossoms, but the effect of leaf, both in form and color, to be considered. Thus it may be said that, as the entire life of the garden, when it must be a perfect whole, is six months, or twenty-four weeks, and the ephemeral life of each blooming plant is about two weeks, what the landscape gardener has to deal with is really a composite of twelve gardens in one. The landscape gardener, too, must know about the action of plants upon the soil, and the action of the different soils upon plants. Here is a sand-bank; it caves in and blows away. Not only is the owner losing his land, but he cannot make anything grow upon it. It is an eyesore. Now the landscape gardener has got to know of that which has roots which will hold that sand-bank together as well as cover it with foliage. Or he may have an ill-drained place to deal with—a swamp. In midsummer a great many things would grow there that will not stand the cold water around their roots in March or April. These illustrations serve to show the great variety of both scientific and experimental knowledge which the landscape gardener must possess. He cannot take lightly the importance of ceaseless study of and familiarity with the growth of plants of every description in every separate locality, nor can he neglect the constant observation which teaches him to find things that harmonize in their quality and æsthetic effect as well as in their growth. The landscape gardener, too, must understand the fundamental principles of architecture in design and proportion, and some of the technical work of the architect. He must, for instance, be able to make a plan on a scale, and be skilled in geometric and mechanical drawing. He must be familiar, either through personal travel or through reading and the study of pictures, with the relationship of architectural building to landscape gardening in other parts of the world. A working knowledge of engineers' grade plans is also necessary. There must be, of course, collaboration between the architect and the landscape gardener, for there are parts of the house that belong to the garden, and parts of the garden that belong to the house. The door of a house opening upon a path which is the main axis of the garden is the door of the garden just as much as it is the door of the house. Suppose you have a fountain so symmetrically placed in your garden that it is seen through the open door from the other end of the hall; is not that fountain as much a part of the hall as the doorway itself? It is this that makes a knowledge of the value of the *axis* so essential to good landscape gardening. The Italians of the Renaissance understood this clearly, and you will find it exemplified in all the best examples of Italian architecture and gardening. All this shows that landscape gardening, instead of being a simple task, is an art that requires high technical knowledge. We shall not have the beautiful and effective gardening of Italy, France, and England in this country until those in control of city plantings, property-holders, and home-builders learn to regard the work of the landscape gardener as a necessary technical profession and to respect his advice as they do that of the engineer or of the architect."

THE THRUSH

BY STANLEY HUBBARD

Sweetly, thou silver-throated thrush,
Fashion a song for me.
Out of the western air of balm,
Sing from the birchen tree.

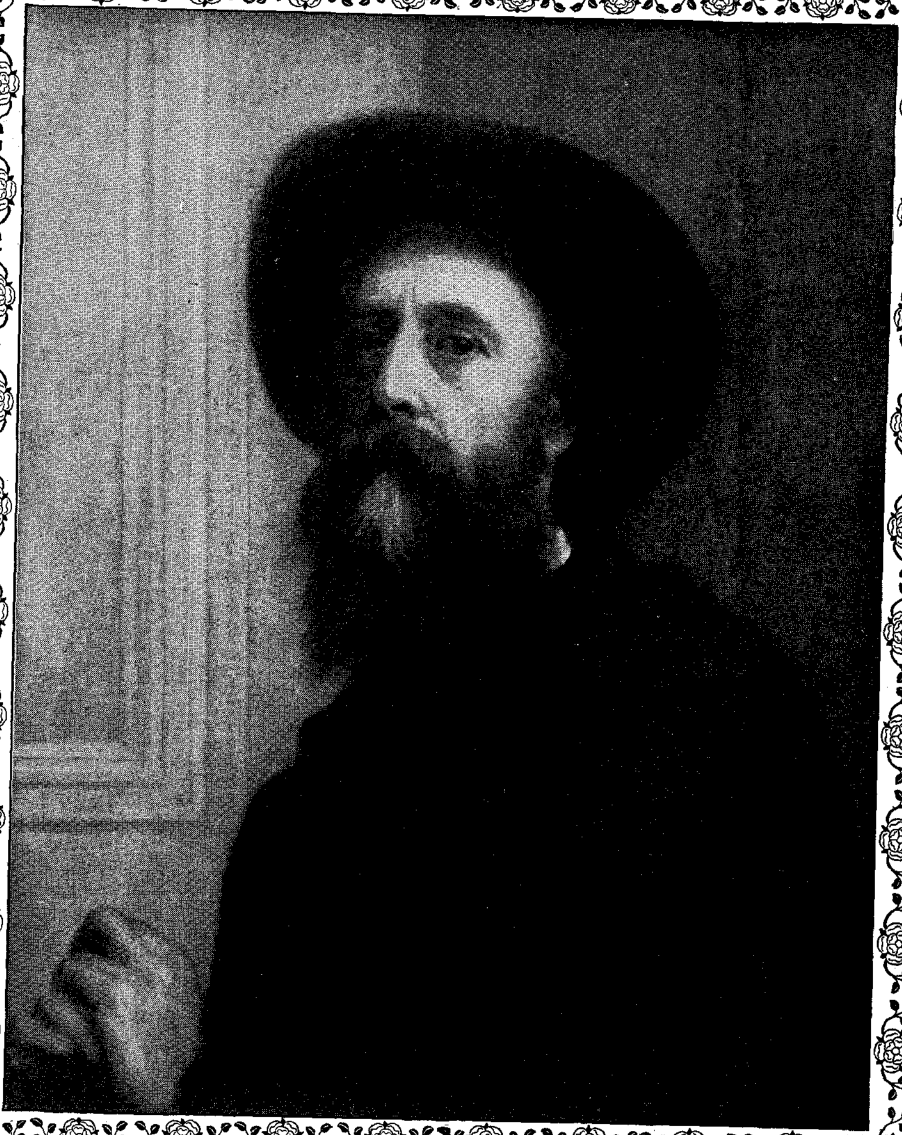
The gray hawk roams the under sky:
Fear no shadowing wing.
The winds shall tell us of his flight:
Leap to the light and sing.

The twig scarce bends beneath thy weight—
Now is thy strain divine.
Joys embalmed of a thousand springs
Flow from that heart of thine.

Thy bosom swells with budding notes;
Let them blossom and throng
Till earth and sky and sea are naught,
Vanished into thy song.

And now the eve, for day hath closed
Westward her golden door,
And thou shalt dream of thy still mate
Guarding the fledglings four.

For winds breathe low, and from the east
Shadows of night are sent
To give thee and thy dear ones sleep
While faithful stars draw nigh and peep
Under the purple tent.



FROM THE PAINTING BY G. F. WATTS

ALFRED TENNYSON

ULYSSES

BY
ALFRED TENNYSON

EIGHTH OF A SERIES OF GREAT POEMS WITH INTRODUCTIONS BY HAMILTON WRIGHT MABIE

IT is safe to venture the prediction that, however Tennyson's work may be reduced in bulk by Time, that dispassionate and inexorable editor, the lines on "Ulysses" will survive all changes of taste and hold their place in English verse of the highest class. It has qualities which give it rank not only as a poem of rare beauty and distinction but as the expression of the poet's genius on the highest level of achievement. It was composed in his earliest prime, and the morning air is upon it; a certain freshness, vigor, and spirited movement modulated and tempered by the classical sense of disciplined and ordered power.

There never was a time in Tennyson's life when he was not a poet; from the earliest hour of childhood in the rectory at Somersby, in Lincolnshire, where a group of children of noble beauty made life a game of the imagination, to the hour when he fell asleep, the burden of years on his body but not on his spirit, "Cymbeline" lying by his hand. At fourteen the whole world seemed to be darkened for him by the death of Byron. Three years later, in company with his brother Charles, he published a slender volume entitled "Poems by Two Brothers," the opening lines of which read:

> "'Tis sweet to lead from stage to stage,
> Like infancy to a maturer age;"

a curious prediction of that power of growth which was the law of life to Tennyson and which he registered with striking clearness in his work. In 1829 his poem "Timbuctoo" won the Chancellor's medal at Cambridge, and a year later another slender volume of "Poems, Chiefly Lyrical," attested his industry and his faith in his genius. Those who read these early verses with a hospitable mind found them delicate finger-work on the keys of speech rather than records of poetic thought. The little volume of 1832 had more to say, for the sensitive touch was beginning to evoke exquisite music, as "The Lady of Shalott," "Ænone," "The Palace of Art," and "The Miller's Daughter" indubitably showed. Here was verse of singular freshness of feeling for landscape, and of purity of sentiment; how far this master of flowing melody would go was another matter.

All doubts were silenced when the two volumes of "Poems" appeared in 1842, and the world read "Ulysses," "Locksley Hall," "Dora," "A Vision of Sin," "The Two Voices," and heard for the first time the perfect music of "Break, Break, Break," in which the sea itself seems to sweep with melancholy surge through the narrow channel of a personal grief. The master of the delicate music of vowels and consonants, the artist of exquisite sensibility, had become a poet. Edward FitzGerald, who read the poems in advance of publication, wrote to a friend:

> Poor Tennyson has got home some of his proof-sheets, and now that his verses are in hard print, he thinks them detestable. There is much I had always told him of his great fault of being too full and complicated—which he now sees or fancies he sees, and wishes he had never been persuaded to print. But with all his faults, he will publish such a volume as has never been published since the time of Keats, and which, once published, will never be suffered to die. This is my prophecy, for I live before Posterity.

This was a bold prediction from one of the oldest of friends, who was also one of the frankest of critics, but it has already had abundant confirmation. Even Carlyle, whose mood in the presence of contemporary poetry was usually the blackness of thick darkness, wrote:

> I have just been reading your Poems; I have read certain of them over again, and mean to read them over and over till they become my poems; this fact, with the inferences that lie in it, is of such emphasis in *me*, I cannot keep it to myself, but must needs acquaint you too with it. If you knew what my relation has been to the thing call'd English "Poetry" for many years back, you would think such fact almost surprising! Truly it is long since in any English Book, Poetry or Prose, I have felt the pulse of a real man's heart as I do in this same.

In the decade that had passed since the publication of "The Miller's Daughter" and "The Lady of Shalott" Tennyson had not only studied his craft with the minuteness and insight of an artist sensitive to its most elusive and haunting effects, but he had drunk deep of the cup of sorrow. He had learned that power in the use of words lies largely in restraint, that depth of thought is reflected in clearness of statement, and passion in intensity not of emotion but of feeling, and that the harp yields its finer melodies to the hand that has mastered its strings with patient regard for the details that sink invisible in the achievement which they alone make possible. And this exquisite art had gained depth and power under the discipline of life. "'Ulysses,'" Tennyson wrote, "was written soon after Arthur Hallam's death, and gave my feeling about the need of going forward and braving the struggle of life perhaps more simply than anything in 'In Memoriam.'"

Here, clearly, is the motive of "Ulysses:" the steadfast facing of life, the ringing response to its appeal to the strong soul, the resolute hoisting of the sail on the great adventure. It records the spirit of the brave antique world, uncertain what lies below the dip of the sea, but ready to face whatever fate awaits the heroic heart in any world. The impulse that sent Ulysses restless and tireless through the "Iliad" and "Odyssey" was not drained by war and wandering; for such as he, in whom the tide of vitality rises to the flood, life is not accomplishment but adventure. Ithaca holds no relaxing rest of age for one whose will sets time at defiance, and sooner or later the imagination of the race was certain to summon him to the rushing sea once more.

In the "Odyssey" the ghost of Tiresias draws aside the curtain of the future for Ulysses, foretells his safe return to Ithaca, the vengeance that will fall from his hand on the base suitors of his wife, and predicts another and more mysterious voyage:

> ". . . then take a shapely oar
> And journey on, until thou meet with men
> Who have not known the sea nor eaten food
> Seasoned with salt, nor ever have beheld
> Galleys with crimson prows, nor shapely oars,
> Which are the wings of ships."

And when Virgil and Dante come upon Diomed and Ulysses together in the "Inferno," the much-experienced wanderer describes this final voyage beyond the Pillars of Hercules, whence no man "farther onward should adventure." Such winged words he spoke to his companions of the unpeopled world beyond that—

> "We of the oars made wings for our mad flight,
>   Evermore gaining on the larboard side.
> Already all the stars of the other pole
>   The night beheld, and ours so very low
>   It did not rise above the ocean floor.
> Five times rekindled and as many quenched
>   Had been the splendor underneath the moon,
>   Since we had entered into the deep pass,
> When there appeared to us a mountain, dim
>   From distance, and it seemed to me so high
>   As I had never any one beheld.
> Joyful were we, and soon it turned to weeping;
>   For out of the new land a whirlwind rose,
>   And smote upon the fore part of the ship.

> Three times it made it whirl with all the waters,
> At the fourth time it made the stern uplift,
> And the prow downward go, as pleased Another,
> Until the sea above us closed again."

In Tennyson's as Dante's setting of the closing act of this drama of adventure, Ulysses exhorts his comrades to dare whatever fate has in store and follow knowledge beyond the outermost star, and on the later as on the earlier sea the untiring adventurer pursues his quest; type of the human spirit, formed not for ease and content but for the immortal quest of experience.

H. W. M.

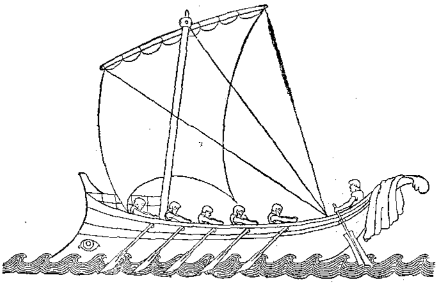
IT little profits that, an idle king,
By this still hearth, among these barren crags,
Match'd with an aged wife, I mete and dole
Unequal laws unto a savage race,
That hoard, and sleep, and feed, and know not me.

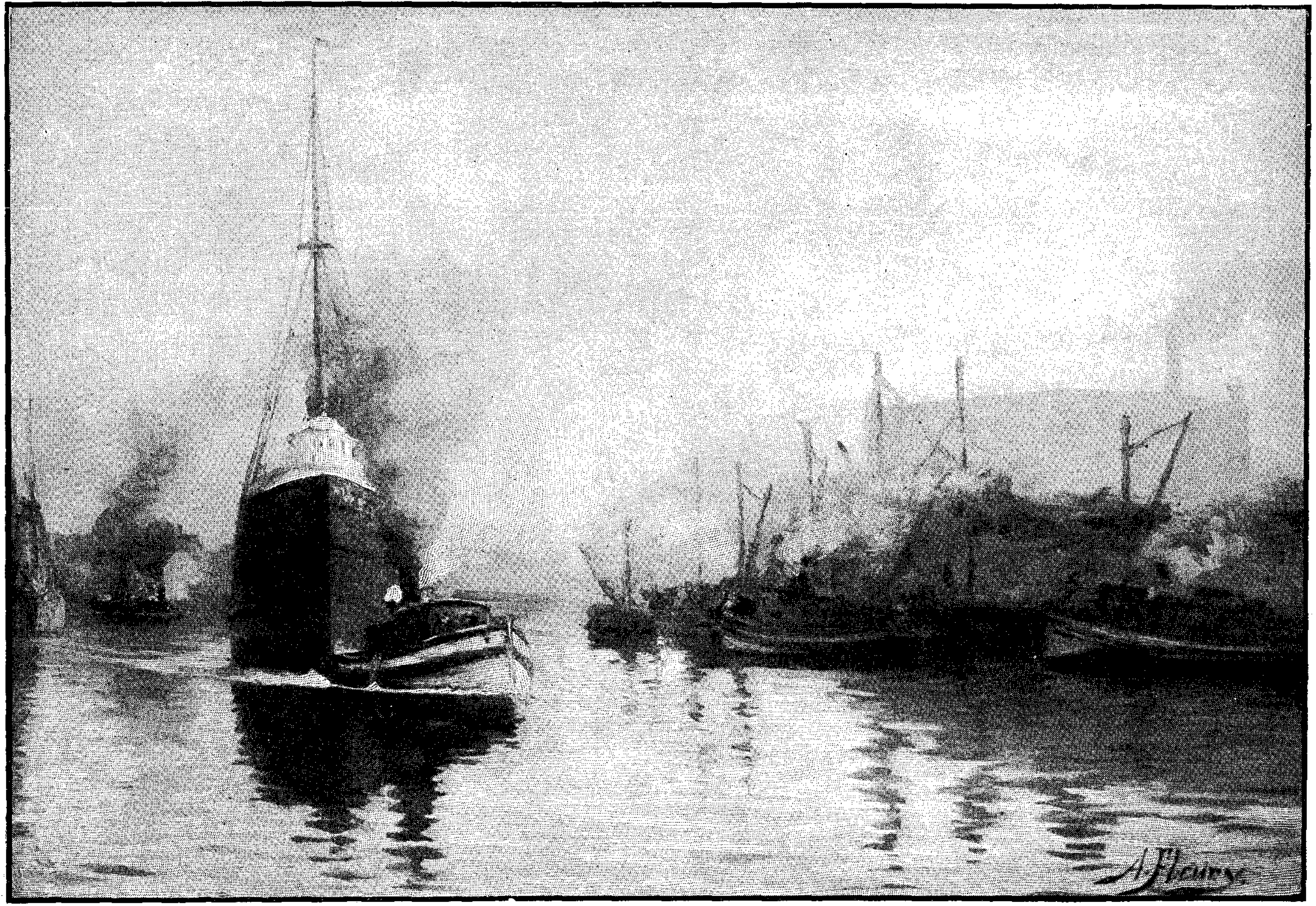
I cannot rest from travel: I will drink
Life to the lees: all times I have enjoy'd
Greatly, have suffer'd greatly, both with those
That loved me, and alone; on shore, and when
Thro' scudding drifts the rainy Hyades
Vext the dim sea: I am become a name;
For always roaming with a hungry heart,
Much have I seen and known; cities of men
And manners, climates, councils, governments,
Myself not least, but honor'd of them all;
And drunk delight of battle with my peers,
Far on the ringing plains of windy Troy.
I am a part of all that I have met;
Yet all experience is an arch wherethro'
Gleams that untravel'd world, whose margin fades
For ever and for ever when I move.
How dull it is to pause, to make an end,
To rust unburnish'd, not to shine in use!
As tho' to breathe were life. Life piled on life
Were all too little, and of one to me
Little remains: But every hour is saved
From that eternal silence, something more,
A bringer of new things; and vile it were
For some three suns to store and hoard myself,
And this gray spirit yearning in desire
To follow knowledge like a sinking star,
Beyond the utmost bound of human thought.

This is my son, mine own Telemachus,
To whom I leave the scepter and the isle—
Well-loved of me, discerning to fulfill

This labor, by slow prudence to make mild
A rugged people, and thro' soft degrees
Subdue them to the useful and the good.
Most blameless is he, centered in the sphere
Of common duties, decent not to fail
In offices of tenderness, and pay
Meet adoration to my household gods,
When I am gone. He works his work, I mine.

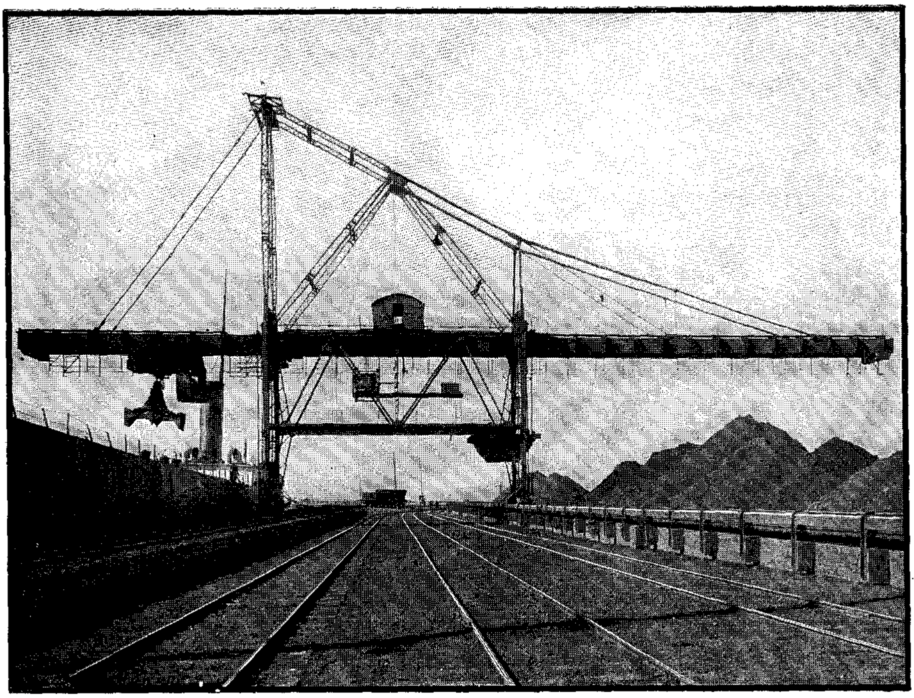
There lies the port; the vessel puffs her sail:
There gloom the dark broad seas. My mariners,
Souls that have toil'd, and wrought, and thought with me—
That ever with a frolic welcome took
The thunder and the sunshine, and opposed
Free hearts, free foreheads—you and I are old;
Old age hath yet his honor and his toil;
Death closes all: but something ere the end,
Some work of noble note, may yet be done,
Not unbecoming men that strove with Gods.
The lights begin to twinkle from the rocks:
The long day wanes: the slow moon climbs: the deep
Moans round with many voices. Come, my friends,
'Tis not too late to seek a newer world.
Push off, and sitting well in order smite
The sounding furrows; for my purpose holds
To sail beyond the sunset, and the baths
Of all the western stars, until I die.
It may be that the gulfs will wash us down:
It may be we shall touch the Happy Isles,
And see the great Achilles, whom we knew.
Tho' much is taken, much abides; and tho'
We are not now that strength which in old days
Moved earth and heaven; that which we are, we are;
One equal temper of heroic hearts,
Made weak by time and fate, but strong in will
To strive, to seek, to find, and not to yield.





DRAWN BY ALBERT FLEURY

THE CHICAGO RIVER



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UNLOADING ORE AT BUFFALO, NEW YORK

The Nation's Need of Waterways

By S. A. Thompson

IT is a plain fact that tariff revision, the need of which is considered sufficiently urgent to justify an extraordinary session of Congress, is of vastly less importance than the improvement of the waterways of the country—a matter which was denied consideration by the last Congress and has no guarantee of consideration by the next.

Transportation affects commerce and industry far more fundamentally, vitally, and continuously than does the tariff. Some things the tariff does not touch at all—every tariff law puts a greater or less number of articles upon the free list. But the free list on a schedule of transportation rates is shorter than the famous chapter on snakes in Iceland.

Congress has the power, if it should so elect, to abolish the tariff entirely and admit all imports free—but no decree could make transportation free. In common speech we say that supplies for sufferers from some great disaster are transported free, just as we say the sun rises. Relief supplies may be carried free of charge, but not free of cost. What really happens when such supplies are carried "free" is that some railway or steamboat company donates the cost of their transportation—for cost, in connection with transportation, is as inevitable as is the natural law of gravitation in the physical world.

Tariff dues are paid but once, but transportation taxes industry and commerce, not once, but many times, adding to the cost at every stage from the initial production of raw material until the finished article is placed in the hands of the ultimate consumer.

In the United States there is no tariff on exports or on inter-State commerce, but transportation lays a tax on both which is equivalent, as to some articles, to a prohibitory duty.

The tariff affects some people and some things part of the time; transportation affects everybody and everything, everywhere and all the time.

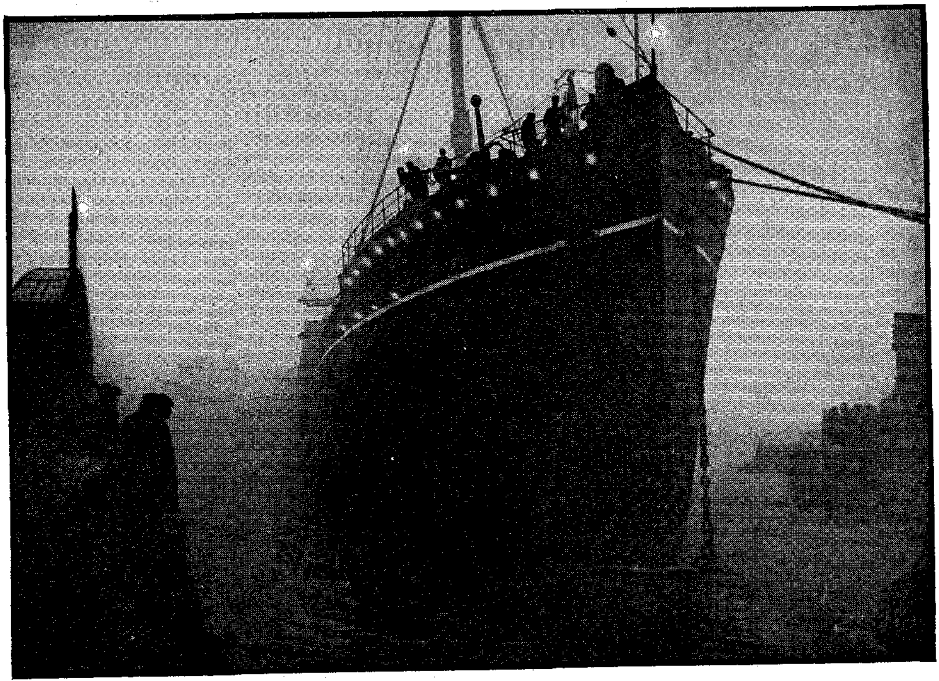
Transportation is the essential factor in both industry and commerce, for unless transportation is available, production in excess of the most elementary personal needs is useless, and commerce is impossible. But the cost of transportation, although in the United States it is neither levied by governmental authority nor collected by governmental agency, is nevertheless a tax, which must be paid either by the producer or the consumer, or, as is most commonly the case, divided between the two. It is, therefore, to the interest of both producer and consumer that this transportation tax be kept as low as possible. And since every man, woman, and child is either a producer or a consumer, or both, this question of cost of transportation sustains a direct and vital relation to the prosperity of every individual citizen—and to the progress of communities, states, and nations, all of which are organized aggregations of individuals. This brings us naturally to a consideration of the cost of transportation by various methods.

The experts of the Agricultural Department estimate the cost of transporting a ton of freight a distance of one mile by horse and wagon on the average road in the United States at twenty-five cents. In England, where the roads are much better than most of those in this country, and where much attention has been given to the development of what the English call a steam lorry and we would call a steam truck, it is said that goods can be carried for five cents per ton-mile.

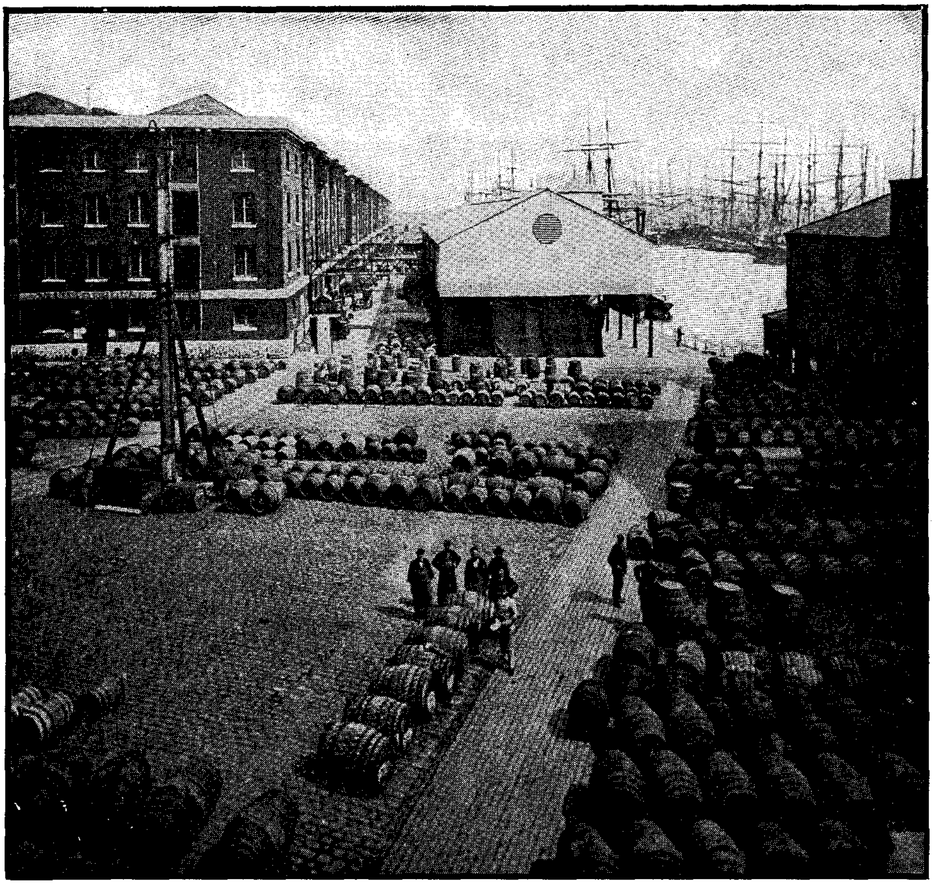
According to Poor's Manual, the average price received by all the railways of the United States for the calendar year 1907 was 7 and 82-100 mills per ton mile, but a group of railways can be selected on which the average would be about five mills.

On the Erie Canal in recent years the ton-mile rate has been about three mills, while on certain canals in Europe, which are deeper and on which electric or other mechanical systems of haulage are used, the rate is two mills.

The official records kept at "The Soo" show that the average rate on the freight carried into and out of Lake Superior in 1907 was 8-10ths of one mill per ton mile,



AT THE ROYAL ALBERT DOCK, ENGLAND



THE DOCKS OF LONDON

while the rate on coal from Buffalo to Duluth-Superior was only 1-3 of one mill; and the Pittsburgh Coal Exchange is authority for the statement that great quantities of coal have been carried from that city to New Orleans at the same rate. These are microscopic figures, and the non-technical reader will more readily grasp their meaning if they are translated into terms with which he is more familiar.

Suppose we have a ton of freight to ship and a dollar with which to pay for its shipment—how far will the dollar carry the ton by these different rates of transportation? By horse and wagon, 4 miles; by English steam truck, 20 miles; by rail, at the average rate for United States railways in 1907, 127 1-2 miles; at the rate on the group of selected railways, 200 miles; on the Erie Canal, 333 miles; on the European canals, 500 miles; by lake, at the average rate through the "Soo" Canal in 1907, 1,250 miles; while at the rate at which coal has been carried both on the Great Lakes and on the Ohio and Mississippi Rivers, the ton of freight can be shipped 30 miles for a cent, 300 miles for a dime, 3,000 miles for a dollar.

The differences in the rates of transportation by different methods seem to be sufficiently great to be worthy of serious consideration. But there is more in this matter than has yet been made apparent. Taking any point as a center—each reader can imagine his own town to be the central point—over how great a territory will a dollar carry a ton by these different methods of transportation? By horse and wagon, over a circle 8 miles in diameter; by English steam truck the diameter of the circle is 40 miles; by average United States railway it is 255 miles; by the selected railways, 400 miles; by Erie Canal, 666 miles; by certain European canals, 1,000 miles; by lake vessel ("Soo" rate), 2,500 miles; and by lake collier or Ohio River barge, at the rate given above, the dollar will carry a ton to the outer limits of a circle 6,000 miles in diameter.

The argument is still not quite complete, for the areas of circles vary, not as their diameters, but as the squares of those diameters. It is needless to work out the differences for all the rates above quoted, and it is perhaps inadvisable to use the low rate made on a special commodity, such as coal, as the basis for a comparison. Basing their opinion upon a study of the rates in effect upon European rivers, the United States army engineers estimate that when the Ohio River has been improved according to the present plans transportation can be profitably conducted thereon at an average rate of one-half mill per ton-mile. And the area of the circle which can be covered where this rate is available is 225 times as great as that which can be reached at the average rate on American railways.

Many interesting and important conclusions are deducible from the foregoing facts, most of which require nothing but a simple statement to make their truth apparent.

Cost of transportation limits and determines the distance from which raw materials for manufacture can be drawn and to which finished products can be shipped.

Every decrease in transportation rates, therefore, produces a corresponding increase of the territory within which business can be profitably conducted, increased rates of course producing the opposite result.

If the changed rate operates in all directions from any given point, the area affected varies inversely and in geometrical ratio. For instance, if the rate is cut in half, the area thereby brought within reach (and, if density of population be uniform, the number of possible customers also) is increased to fourfold what it was before.

"Not mileage, but cost of transportation is the true commercial measure of distance."

Of two or more competitors, equal in other respects, that one will reach the wider market, win the larger trade, and gain the greater profit, who has at his command the cheaper transportation. And it matters not at all whether these competitors are individuals, cities, states, or nations.

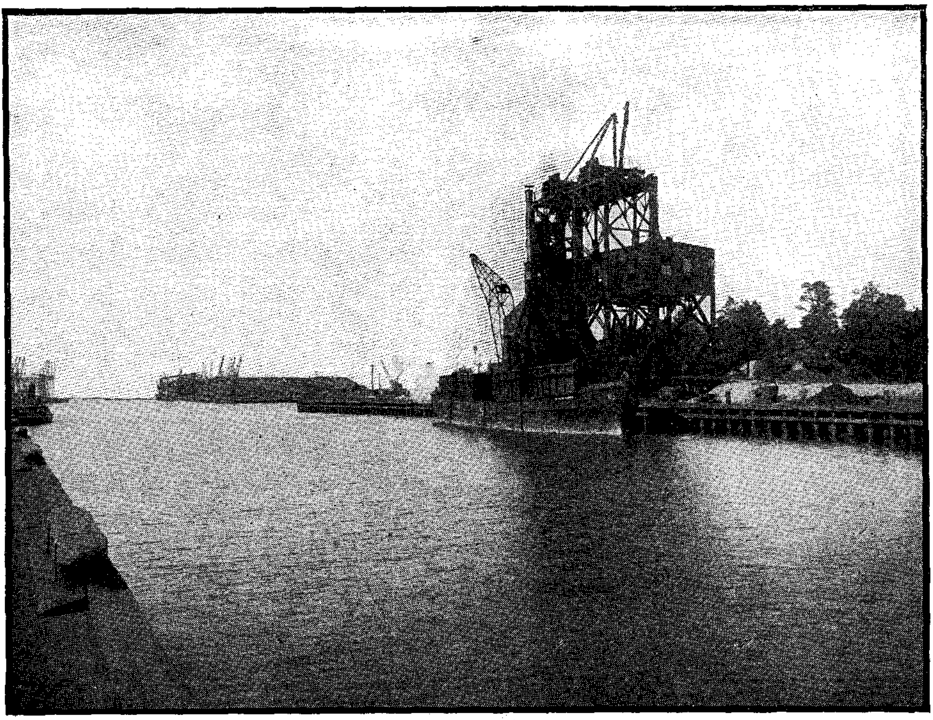
"He who can most cheaply reach the markets of the world can control the commerce of the world."

Cheap transportation does not merely facilitate commerce, it absolutely creates both commerce and manufactures, for every decrease in cost of carriage permits the utilization of raw materials of a lower grade. A difference of a dollar a pound on a shipment of diamonds would be relatively less important than a difference of a dollar a ton on a shipment of coal. Natural resources, however rich and varied, remain merely potential resources until the magic touch of transportation transforms them into available resources. No district, region, or nation can reach the highest possible development of its resources unless it be supplied with the cheapest possible transportation—and that, as proved beyond all doubt of peradventure by the figures already given, is water transportation.

The logical and inevitable conclusion from the foregoing premises is that the highest possible prosperity for the United States can be attained, and maintained, only through the completest possible development of the waterways of the country. The results of experience abundantly demonstrate the truth of this conclusion, but the allotted space will allow the use of only a few suggestive illustrations.

Some twenty years or more ago an English expert, who had made a study of conditions in the iron and steel industry of this country, reported to the British ironmakers that the United States could never successfully compete with them because the deposits of ore were too far away from the coal. But in less than five years from the date of that report the United States was making more pig iron than Great Britain every year, and now for many years has led the world in aggregate production of every form of iron and steel. And without the cheap transportation for the Lake Superior ores furnished by the Great Lakes, this result, with all the countless benefits which have accrued therefrom, would have been impossible.

When Germany began to show signs of increasing her production of iron and steel,



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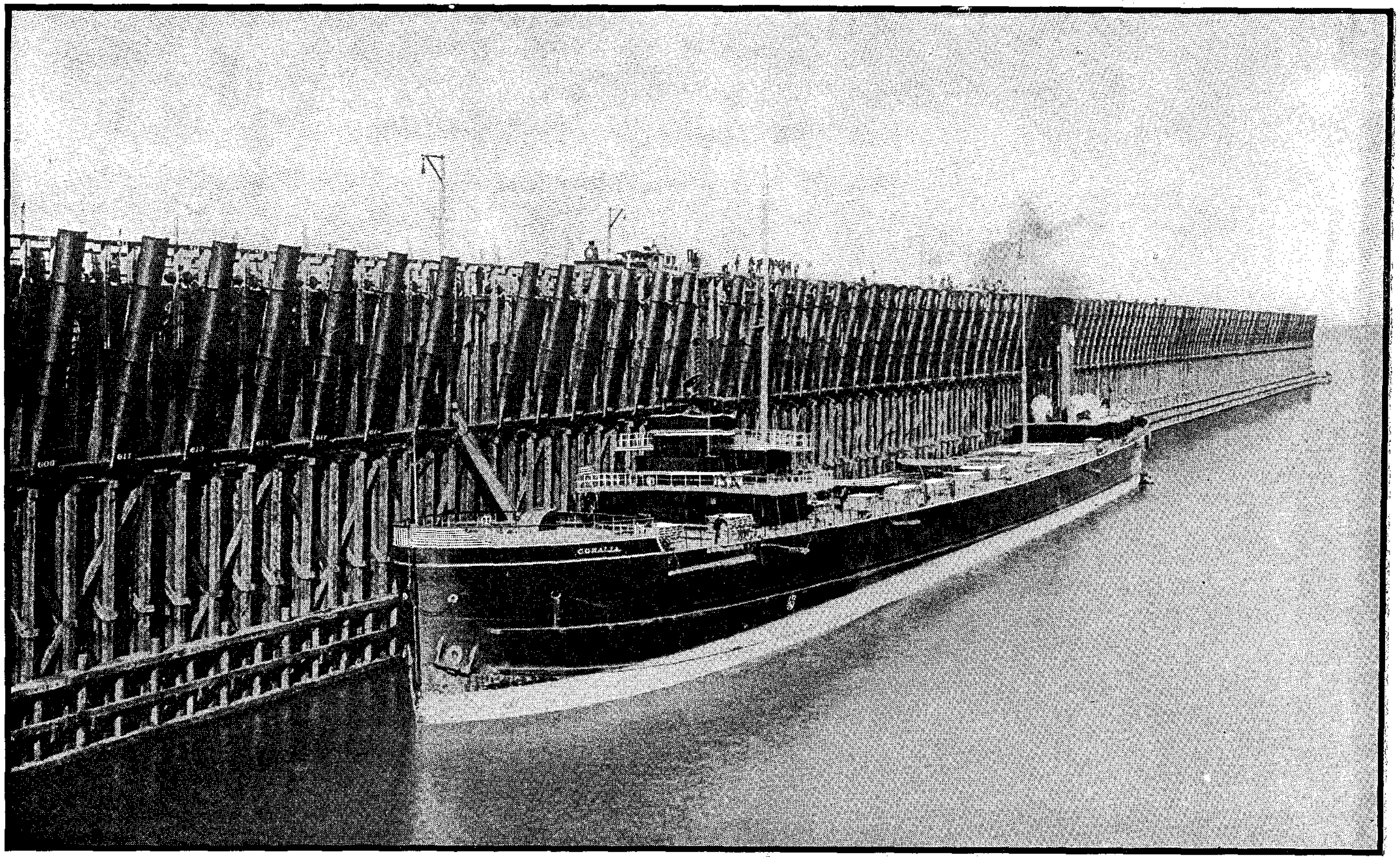
THE COAL-DUMPING PLANT AT CONNEAUT, OHIO

British experts investigated the situation there also, and reported that no really important development of the industry was possible in that country, because the supplies of ore were limited in quantity and inferior in quality, and the centers of production were located at a great distance from the seaboard. But Great Britain, which for so long a time held the primacy of the world in the production of iron and steel, has had to yield precedence not only to the United States but to Germany, whose output of steel in 1907 was almost double that of Great Britain, and more than half as much as that of the United States.

Here again cheap transportation has achieved the seemingly impossible, for the bulk of the ores used in the German iron and steel industry are imported from Spain and the Scandinavian peninsula, being transferred in German seaports to canal boats and river barges, and thus carried to the furnace all the way by water. The cheap transportation furnished by Germany's splendid system of inland waterways might almost be said to have created natural resources. Certainly it must be credited with taking the place of natural resources, for it supplies the raw material for a great industry and enables the product of that industry to reach the markets of all the world—including Birmingham and Pittsburgh.

Germany occupies so large a place in the world's activities that it is hard to realize that if the Kaiser's domain could be laid down upon the State of Texas there would be enough territory left uncovered to equal the area of New York and New Jersey combined. Yet this little country, with one-fifteenth of our area, two-thirds of our population, less than half our accumulated wealth, and with climate and resources far inferior to ours, had in 1907 a foreign commerce greater than that of the United States by nearly $400,000,000. And the fundamental reason for this radical difference in the commercial achievements of the two nations lies in the fact that Germany has made a systematic and comprehensive improvement of her waterways—and the United States has not.

Money spent for an expensive method of transportation when a cheaper method



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A FINE EXAMPLE OF DOCK DEVELOPMENT ON THE GREAT LAKES is available, or can be made available, may benefit the company to which it is paid, but so far as the one who does the paying is concerned it is as utterly wasted as if it had been thrown into the fire. Some idea of the appalling magnitude of the waste of wealth which is continually going on in the United States, because in our shortsighted folly we have allowed all our waterways but one to remain practically unimproved, may be gained by a glance at the saving effected by that one, which is composed of the four great lakes lying above Niagara Falls.

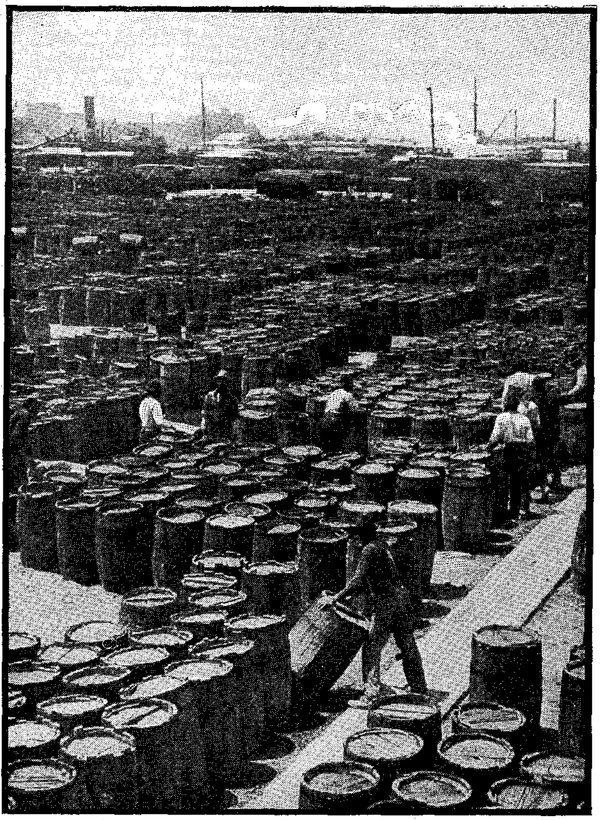
The freight carried on the lakes in 1907 amounted, in round numbers, to 100,000,000 tons. Comparing what it would have cost to ship this vast tonnage by rail, at the average charge made by the railways during that year, with the price actually paid for its transportation by water, we find the latter figure less than the former by $550,000,000. This huge sum, which represents the saving of a single year, largely exceeds the total expenditures made for the improvement of all the rivers and harbors of the country since the organization of the government, and is six and one-half times the amount expended on the lakes themselves. What other governmental expenditure returns so large a dividend?

And this amount, great as it is, represents only a portion of the total saving, for a cheaper form of transportation invariably makes a material modification of the rates charged by other forms of transportation with which it comes in competition. When a merchant in Walla Walla, Washington, on goods shipped directly to him from New York, pays the through rate from New York to Portland, Oregon, plus the local rate from Portland back to Walla Walla, he may protest, but his protest is in vain. For the railways make a lower rate for the longer distance to Portland than for the shorter distance to Walla Walla—and the Inter-State Commerce Law allows it to be done—because it is possible to carry goods from New York to Portland all the way by water, via the Straits of Magellan, or practically all the way by water over a shorter route, via the Isthmus of Panama.

The fact that railways invariably give lower rates to places situated upon navigable waterways than to those which are not proves conclusively, not only that transportation by water is inherently cheaper than transportation by rail, but also that waterways exercise a powerful regulative effect on railway charges. No statistics are available from which to calculate the indirect saving produced by waterways through the lowering of railway rates, but it must be at least equal to the direct saving already named. Who shall compute—or comprehend—the combined direct and indirect saving which would result if the waterways of the United States, which now, with one exception, are only partially and occasionally navigable, should be made completely and permanently navigable?

While all that has been said is true, not all the truth has yet been said, and if Noah had prophesied a drought instead of a flood, and had issued bonds to build an irrigation canal instead of constructing an ark, he would have been a bright and shining example of business sagacity compared with a railway man who would oppose the improvement of waterways. For, paradoxical as it may seem at first thought, waterways are, at one and the same time, the most potent regulators of railway rates and the most powerful promoters of railway prosperity and producers of railway dividends. The best thing that could happen to any railway would be to have a waterway paralleling every mile of its track; and, within reasonable limits, the deeper and wider and more efficient the waterway, the better for the railway.

Did space permit, specific instances by the score could be adduced in support of this assertion. Here is one. Following the improvement of the Main, traffic increased rapidly both on the river itself and on the railways along its banks. Ten years after the first improvement was completed, traffic by rail had increased to nearly double what it was when the railways had a practical monopoly of the freight business of Frankfort. And this increase in traffic is not by any means the most important benefit to the railways which resulted from the improvement of the river. For the tonnage was not only doubled in quantity but was raised in grade, so that it paid a much higher rate



PHOTOGRAPH BY UNDERWOOD & UNDERWOOD

SAVANNAH, THE GREATEST RESIN MARKET IN THE WORLD

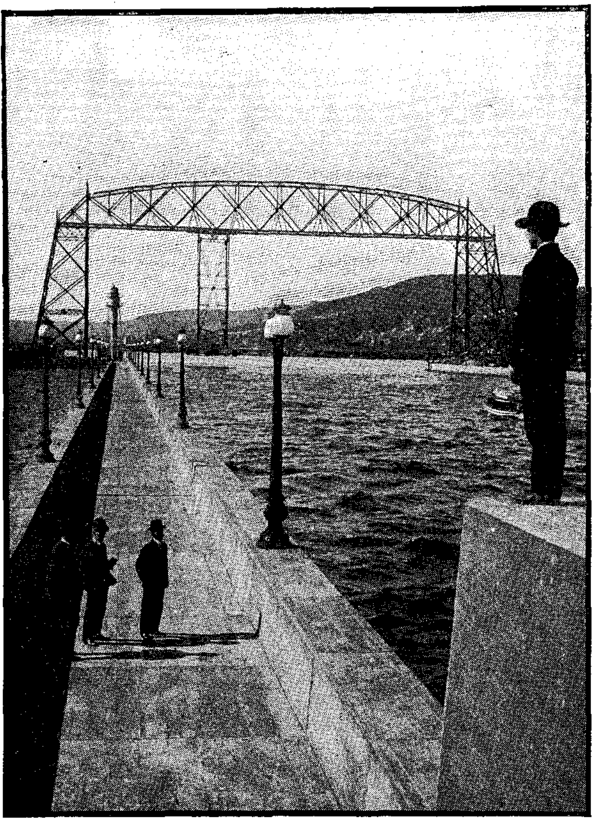
per ton; it was made more symmetrical—that is, incoming and outgoing traffic were equalized—and hence more economical and profitable; and the growth of Frankfort in population and prosperity produced a great increase in passenger traffic, express matter, and mails, practically all of which went to the railways.

A glance at the balance sheet of the entire German railway system makes it evident that the benefits to the railways paralleling the river Main, which followed the improvement of that stream, constitute no isolated and exceptional case, but represent the normal outworking of a principle of universal application.

Out of a total of 35,000 miles of railway in Germany, all but 2,500 are owned and operated by the states composing the Empire. More than two-thirds of the total revenue of Prussia is derived from her railways. After paying all expenses of operation, repairs, construction, new equipment, interest on bonds, etc., the railways of Germany, in 1907, turned into the treasuries of the various states net earnings to the amount of $164,000,000.

"That a portion of this surplus," says Consul-General Mason, "should be devoted each year to improving and extending the canal and navigable river system is in furtherance of a policy the wisdom of which time and experience have fully confirmed." The wisdom of this policy will be still more apparent when it is pointed out that the net earnings of the German railways for 1907 amounted to an average of $5,050 per mile of line, while the average net earnings per mile of the railways of the United States for the year ending June 30, 1906, were only one-third as much, or $1,730.

It is a striking and significant fact that those nations which have billions of dollars invested in State-owned railways should be the very nations which have spent, and are spending, hundreds of millions of dollars for the construction,



PHOTOGRAPH BY UNDERWOOD & UNDERWOOD

THE HARBOR ENTRANCE AT DULUTH, MINNESOTA

and the maintenance for public use either absolutely free or for nominal tolls, of great systems of waterways parallel to and competing with those railways the income from which constitutes much the larger portion of their national revenues.

In the report of a French legislative committee, which declared that it was to the interest of the State to foster both methods of transportation, occurred these words:

"It is conceded that waterways and railways are destined, not to supplant, but to supplement each other. Between the two there is a natural division of traffic. To the railroad goes the least burdensome traffic, which demands regularity and quick transit; to the waterways gravitate the heavy freights of small value which can only be transported where freights are low.

"Waterways, by increasing traffic, are rather the auxiliaries than the competitors of railroads. In procuring for manufacturers cheap transportation for coal and raw material they create freights whose subsequent transportation gives profit to the railroads."

Here we have a definition, clear-cut and accurate, of the essential functions of railways and waterways, and a lucid statement of the reason for the benefits which invariably accrue to railways from the construction or improvement of parallel waterways.

While economy is undoubtedly of prime importance in connection with transportation, it does not constitute the sole measure of efficiency; promptness and reliability are also essential. Every business man remembers the congestion of traffic, the intolerable and almost interminable delays in the movement of freight, which were the prevailing conditions for several years preceding the panic of 1907. The mistake of Uncle Mose, ridiculous as it was when made, became an apt and accurate characterization; for the railways of the United States were literally "transpohtation futilities."

The writer believes that, to a much greater degree than is generally recognized, the panic of 1907 was caused by the long-continued demoralization of traffic by which it was preceded. Be that as it may, it was conclusively demonstrated that the railways of the country are utterly unable to handle the traffic which the country can produce; the roads, as a leading railway journal said editorially, being "literally swamped by prosperity."

It may not be next month, or even next year, that the full tide of prosperity will return, but since the productive capacity of the country is just as great as ever, the ultimate return of prosperity is just as certain as the ultimate recurrence of panic and overwhelming disaster unless a radical change is made in our National transportation system.

What is the needed change and how shall it be brought about? President Hill, of the Great Northern Railway, is authority for the statement that it would take the expenditure of eight thousand millions of dollars to put the railways of the country in condition to handle the traffic of the country. He declares that the roads can secure neither the money, the materials, nor the men to make the necessary improvements, and adds that, even if they could, traffic would so increase while the improvements were being carried out that by the time they were completed transportation conditions would be as bad as before.

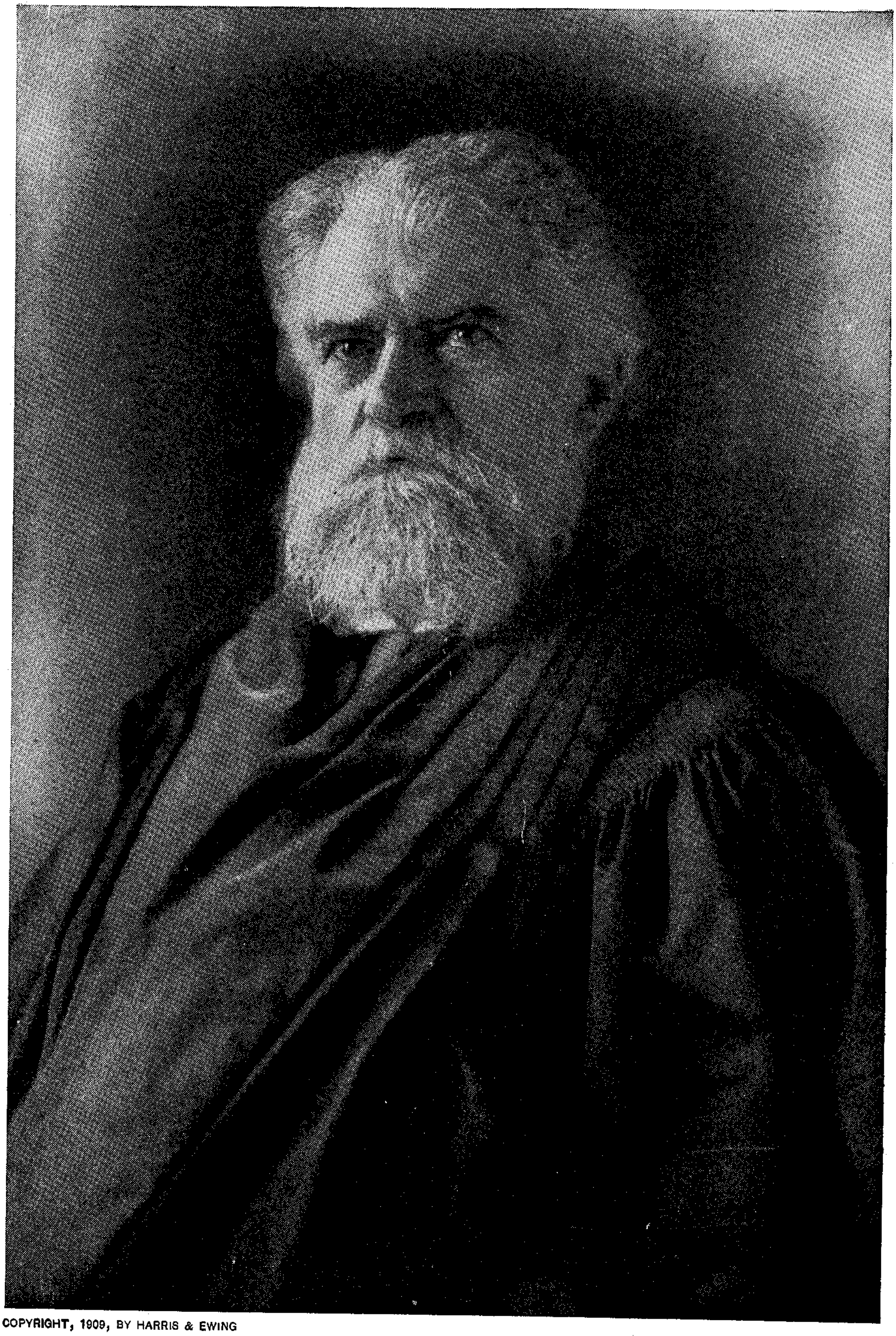
From the difficulties and dangers of this situation one way of escape, and one only, is possible—and that is to be found in the construction of a great National system of waterways to supplement and complement the existing system of railways.

Both because it is beyond the power of private or corporate capital, and because the Constitution places navigable waterways under the exclusive jurisdiction of Federal authority, the execution of this gigantic task must necessarily be intrusted to the National Government. And because there is a crisis which must be faced, an emergency which must be met, there must be a prompt and permanent abandonment of the policy which has thus far been pursued—a half-hearted, short-sighted, dilatory, procrastinating, wasteful, wholly irrational and utterly indefensible policy of picayune, penurious, parsimonious, piecemeal, irregular, uncertain, spasmodic, semi-occasional appropriations, to be expended upon a patchwork of isolated, disconnected, and entirely unrelated waterway improvements.

The pressing needs of the present, and the larger needs which loom before us in the immediate future, can be provided for only by the adoption of the common-sense, progressive, businesslike policy advocated by the National Rivers and Harbors Congress. This policy includes the organization of a Department, or at least a Bureau, of the Government, which shall work out the plans for a comprehensive, truly National waterway system; the immediate beginning of work upon those projects which have already been well studied and which will necessarily constitute a part of any general plan; and—most vitally important of all—provision for an ample and regular supply of funds, so that all work, once begun, may be continuously prosecuted and completed in the shortest practicable time.

The country cannot afford the losses, direct and indirect, which follow the stoppage of work upon our harbors and rivers, nor the incalculable damage to National progress and development which will result from failure to create a National system of waterways. And the funds, therefore, should be provided, just as are those for the Panama Canal, by bonds authorized for that specific purpose, and issued from time to time as required.

Money so used would be, not an expenditure, but an investment—and one producing vastly greater returns than any other made by the Government. Since posterity will receive a larger share of the resultant benefits than the present generation, it is only fair that posterity should bear a portion of the cost. The two hundred million souls who will inhabit the United States in 1950 will be better able to pay a part, or even all, of the cost of a National system of waterways than the ninety millions of the present day, not only because of increased numbers, but because of the increase in National wealth which such a system would create.



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SIMON NEWCOMB
See editorial comment on another page

SHALL WE SEND THEM TO COLLEGE?

BY LYMAN ABBOTT

THERE are a great many parents in the United States who are perplexed by the question whether or not to send their children to college. They can afford the money. They desire for their children the best education. But they have heard much about the temptations of college life, much about its enticements to vice, and much about its tendency to unsettle faith. To sacrifice character to secure education is far too high a price to pay. And they hesitate. This article is written primarily to give such parents, not counsel, but some information which may help them to come to a wise decision.

I have had some special advantages for becoming acquainted with the moral and spiritual influence of American colleges on character. I have for the last ten years—ever since resigning the pastorate of Plymouth Church—given myself to an itinerant ministry, chiefly among the colleges. I have visited during that time over forty, and in that estimate I do not include institutions for the education of colored men and women, nor some so-called colleges which give little more than a high school education. My itinerary has carried me from Maine to Louisiana, and from the Atlantic to the Pacific coast. The colleges visited have included some for men, some for women, and some for both sexes; some that are privately endowed, some that are supported by the State, and some that are both privately endowed and aided by the State. During these ten years I estimate that I have delivered religious addresses to student audiences aggregating upward of 240,000; but as I have often spoken to the same college in successive years, and sometimes to the same college audience on successive Sundays, it is probable that the total number of students addressed has not exceeded 100,000—perhaps less. This experience was preceded by over fifteen years of occasional college preaching. I have thus been enabled to make some intelligent comparison of conditions now with those of a quarter of a century ago, and my own college experience has enabled me to carry this comparison back more than a quarter of a century further.

It may be thought that speaking to college audiences gives very little opportunity to form any well-grounded judgment concerning the college spirit. This is partly true. But the extemporaneous speaker—and I always speak extemporaneously—talks not merely to his audiences, he talks with them. He learns to watch them; to read what is passing in their minds; to know what interests them, what approves itself to them, and measurably how far he is carrying them with him to his conclusions. Moreover, it becomes a second nature to him to study his auditors beforehand, that he may adapt his instructions to their needs. Accordingly, I have made it a rule to arrive, when possible, at the college a day or two before my address, to ascertain by conference with members of the faculty, and frequently with students, what are the conditions of college life at the time of the visit, that the sermon may be adapted to the present needs; and I have listened after the sermon to such echoes as might reach me and might serve to indicate both the failures and the successes of my endeavor. Wherever opportunity offered I have welcomed, and, where it was legitimate to do so, I have offered, conferences with the students, remaining sometimes for a day or two, sometimes for the week between Sundays, or longer, for this purpose. In this way I have talked with many hundreds of students one by one, and, including group conferences of from twenty-five to a hundred or more, with some thousands. These conferences have not been parlor lectures; they have been real conferences, in which the students have expressed themselves with great frankness on the themes—always spiritual or ethical—which we were considering. Whatever faults college students may have, lack of candor is not one of them.

The first fact of which I am absolutely sure is that college students are interested in religious themes, and the profounder the theme the greater the interest. In nearly or quite half the colleges in which I have spoken the attendance has been absolutely voluntary; but on Sundays the chapel has always been crowded, and on week days almost invariably well attended. Nor can this be due to mere curiosity to hear an advertised stranger, since when he was no longer a stranger the attendance did not lessen; nor to the fascination of a dramatic impersonator or an eloquent orator, for I am neither. What interests my audience is the theme, not any eloquence in its presentation. And the more profoundly spiritual the theme the greater has been the interest. The attention has been unmistakably more tense when the subject discussed has been such as the Personality of God, the Immortality of the Soul, or the Person of Christ, than when it has been solely ethical or sociological. And this applies equally to audiences in those colleges in which attendance has been required. Twenty years ago it was not always easy to secure attention from such audiences; now their readiness to listen is decidedly greater than that of ordinary congregations. College congregations are composed of eager audiences; indifferent hearers are rare exceptions. There is but one rule necessary to be observed in addressing a college audience (I say this for the benefit of younger men in the ministry, and I suspect the rule may be a good one for other audiences): Have something to say, and then say it. Begin without an introduction, close without a peroration, and waste no time in rhetorical ornamentation or emotional appeals.

That this interest in religion and in its deeper themes is not due to mere curiosity nor to pleasurable emotional excitement is evident from another fact—the readiness with which students avail themselves of opportunities for personal conference. I have rarely been able to offer a morning for such conference with students that the hours devoted to it have not been fully occupied. Often two or three students have been awaiting their turn. I have never, I think, suggested an hour for a group conference that a group of eager students has not been present with questions; and I have also invariably had to bring the conference to a close myself before they were ready to go. Usually then the group breaks up into smaller groups for further conversation. I recall one instance in a co-educational institution in the West, where I met perhaps threescore college girls in the rooms of the Young Women's Christian Association. There were not chairs enough in the room, and the girls sat upon the floor. After a conference taking a full hour and a half I retired; but I was afterward told that some of the girls remained and discussed such themes as God, immortality, prayer, inspiration, and forgiveness, until one o'clock in the morning.

It should be added that this interest has changed in its character in the last twenty-five years. At that time the questions in which college students were chiefly interested were those growing out of evolution—how to reconcile Genesis and geology, or the doctrine of the Fall with the doctrine of the development of man from a lower order, or, more broadly, the unquestionable teachings of science with the apparent teachings of the Bible. The modern collegian has apparently adjusted his religious faith to the doctrine of evolution. These questions no longer appear to perplex him. His theological questions are more spiritual, more vital, more questions of real experience: How shall he think of God? of communion with God? of forgiveness of sins? of the character of Christ? of the future life?

But the college questions are not merely questions of theology or of spiritual experience. They are not less, possibly they are more, questions of service. What can I do for my fellow-men, and how can I best do it? are paramount questions among these college men and women—that is, among those whom I have met. In his "Spiritual Significance of Modern Socialism" John Spargo asks what he evidently regards as an unanswerable question: "Where to-day are the dreamers of dreams setting the hearts of men aflame with holy enthusiasms, setting the feet of young men and maidens marching toward the vision? Where is there faith in mankind, faith in the future of the race, in the capacity of mankind to rise higher and higher, to complete the chain of evolution from brute to brother?"

Where? In all our American colleges, North and South, East and West. There is no lack of dreamers; of hearts aflame with holy enthusiasm; of young men and maidens eager to march toward the vision; of faith in the capacity of mankind to complete the chain of evolution from brute to brother. What these young men and maidens need is not chiefly greater enthusiasm inspiring them to march, but wise counsel teaching them in what direction to march; not more vision, but more practical knowledge and more wise self-reliance, that they may make the vision real. In these ten years of college experience I have had a few come to me with the question, How to escape from some pit into which, through ignorance or sudden gust of passion, they have fallen; but I have had hundreds come to me with the question, How can I best serve my fellow-men; how best promote universal brotherhood? And this counsel has been sought alike by men intending to go into the ministry, into law, into business, into teaching, into journalism. With comparatively few exceptions, the questions which are brought to the college itinerant pastor and preacher may all be classed under these two categories: What may I believe, with reasonable conviction, concerning the invisible world? and, What service can I best render to my fellow-men? This spirit of human service is in the air—certainly in the college air. He who goes to an American college and does not find himself inspired by this spirit of service must either be more impervious to the influence of human enthusiasms than I am, or must have selected for himself a very different circle of college fellows from those whom I have met.

It is this spirit of service which has given such growth to the college Young Men's Christian Associations. I do not know what are the figures as to their growth. This does not aim to be a scientific history of religious development in our colleges, but simply a record of personal observations. A few years after I graduated from college I was invited to preach before the Society of Inquiry—which then answered to the college Young Men's Christian Association—and preached on the text "Quit you like men," to a congregation of mothers in Israel, with two college boys in the gallery. I now speak under the auspices of the Young Men's Christian Association in our colleges to audiences varying in size from one hundred to four or five hundred. Even twenty-five years ago the average college Young Men's Christian Association was a little band of young men of genuine but conventional piety, meeting for religious exercises of the ecclesiastical type. Now it has grown into a great working organization pervading the colleges with its spirit as the churches endeavor, with varying success, to pervade the community. Much of the kind of work done by the Young Men's Christian Associations outside the college cannot be done within. They have no occasion to provide a gymnasium or a library and reading-room, and little occasion to provide social fellowship. Abundant provision is made for these by the college or by other student organizations. They therefore organize almost exclusively for work. In a number of the colleges Bible classes are held and attended by large numbers of students. A course of study has been arranged by Biblical scholars; some expert, usually a member of the faculty, holds a weekly normal class; and students, usually upper-class men, going from this class to classes of five or six students, carry on in collaboration a thoroughly systematic course of Bible study. In other colleges the Young Men's Christian Association has taken up and is carrying on a religious and philanthropic work outside, giving to workingmen in classes something of the instruction which the students are getting in their college course. In one girls' college the students have raised the money, built a club-house for the servants, equipped it with library and magazines, and connected with it classes, so that the maids who serve in the dormitories and the dining-rooms and kitchens may have a share in the advantages which the girls enjoy in the college curriculum.

This religious development of our colleges has been accompanied naturally with a corresponding ethical development. Hazing is a fashion of the past; and though occasionally some belated students attempt a revival, the attempt meets with but little success. The public sentiment of the collegians, not the rules imposed on them by the faculty, have brought it to an end. The same may be said of the lawlessness which was formerly characteristic of college communities—the raiding of the town by the college students, the robbing of hen-roosts, the carrying off of garden gates and village signs, and similar acts of hoodlum depredation. It cannot be said, of course, that all collegians are gentlemen, but in our colleges generally there are gentlemen enough to discourage vulgar rowdyism. The vices of the modern college are of a different type; and yet I believe that the standard of social morality is quite as high as will be found in any community of five hundred or a thousand boys engaged in commercial or industrial pursuits. The American college is not an Eden, and the atmosphere of the American college is not celestial. There is in every college a "fast set." Of course it is rarely the case that a representative of the fast set calls on the preacher, and my knowledge of what its habits are is derived from others. In men's colleges there are men who think they are not free unless they are vicious; in women's colleges there is an occasional woman who thinks she is not free unless she is lawless. In other words, there are fools inside college walls as well as outside.

The vices of college boys are chiefly drinking, gambling, and licentiousness. Drinking is, I think, less than in my college days; drunkenness certainly is. There is no longer a compelling fashion to drink; increasingly wine is being banished from class and alumni banquets, or served only to those who especially order it. Betting is common, but, except on great athletic days, rarely for large amounts. As to licentiousness, it is difficult to form a trustworthy opinion, since every man who yields to this temptation endeavors to justify himself by declaring that everybody is licentious. Doubtless in those universities which are in or near great cities, and in some of the smaller colleges also, the opportunities are many and the temptations are seductive; but it is my opinion, based on the best information I can obtain, that this vice is much less common than most cynics and some reformers would have us believe, and probably less inside than outside college walls. In short, college life may not safeguard moral character, but does not tend to undermine it. College is not a safe place for a weak-willed and easily tempted boy, but I do not know where in America a safe place for such a one is to be found. In truth, whether college life incites to virtue or to vice depends very largely on the companions which the freshman chooses, or permits to choose him, when he enters college.

But while college does not tend to weaken the moral bonds, but rather to strengthen them, while it does not tend to lower the ethical ideals, but rather to raise them, it unquestionably tends to weaken, if not to destroy, faith in the authority of traditions, and—though this some may question—to develop faith in personal convictions. It is destructive of make-believe beliefs; it is constructive of real beliefs.

For the atmosphere of the American college is that of free inquiry. That a statement has always been believed is counted no adequate reason for believing it any longer. When I was in college, a lecturer came our way who offered to demonstrate that the Copernican theory of astronomy was all wrong. Our professor let him have the use of a lecture-room—of course out of college hours—and a number of us listened to him with amused curiosity for an hour. The liberty served to indicate our professor's faith both in the Copernican theory and in the ability of his students to hear it questioned. This is the spirit of the modern college. James Martineau says: "There are but three forms under which it is possible to think of the ultimate or immanent principle of the Universe: Mind, Life, Matter; given the first, it is thought out; the second, it blindly grows; the third, it mechanically shuffles into equilibrium." The college student feels himself at liberty to consider each of these hypotheses, or any other if there are any others, without prejudice, and his professor encourages him to exercise that liberty. To be open-minded, to be equally ready to hear any argument that can be adduced for any hypothesis in science, philosophy, or religion, and to weigh it fairly, is, in the college estimate, the first intellectual requirement of sound scholarship. The college man is therefore equally ready to consider the claims of idealistic monism, materialistic monism, practical dualism, and Professor James's last hypothesis, pluralism. As in theology and philosophy, so in everything. There are no closets on which the key is turned and which contain secrets the student must not investigate. If politics is his subject, the assertion of the Declaration of Independence does not prevent him from a free inquiry into the question whether government rests on the consent of the governed. If sociology is his subject, he aims to consider the respective merits of polyandry, polygamy, and monogamy with an unprejudiced mind. If economics, he is equally ready to consider the claims of the protectionist, the free-trader, and the single-taxer. Neither socialism nor individualism has any terrors for him. The one thing which he will not consent to for a moment is pretending to a conviction when he is not convinced; or shutting his eyes to facts because they do not accord with his preconceived ideas.

This discarding of traditional ideas, this readjustment of the mind to new conceptions, is helped, indeed necessitated, by college companionships. Unitarian and Trinitarian, Quaker and Churchman, Protestant and Roman Catholic, Jew and Christian, believer and agnostic, meet together, form friendships, interchange ideas. The axiom of the one seems an absurdity to the other. What the student once thought was a conviction he discovers, when he has to give a reason for it, is not a conviction at all, only a prejudice; that is, a pre-judgment, a judgment preceding investigation. The Churchman has to re-examine his faith when called on by the Quaker to give a good reason for public prayer. The Christian, when asked by the Jew for his definition of the divinity of Jesus Christ, finds, to his surprise, that he has no definition to give. The believer finds it difficult to tell the agnostic what he means by a "personal God." The Republican in politics discovers that his Socialistic comrade does not propose to dig up all that civilization has cultivated and replant on a freshly plowed field, but thinks that Socialism is or will be the finished product of a social evolution, and when asked, Why not? is compelled to do some careful thinking in order to answer. And the Socialist also finds that the castle in the air which has proved so seductive to him has no attractions to his more practical mate unless he can be shown some practically beneficial steps toward making it a real and comfortable habitation. If the collegian, frightened by this spirit of universal inquiry, flees to his professor for refuge, he finds, if he is in a college worthy of the name, that his professor is only a new stimulant to inquiry. For the object of the college, and with rare exceptions of every member of the college faculty, is to inspire men to do their own thinking, not to think for them nor to furnish them with thoughts ready made.

In this process of universal inquiry a small minority of college students come out of college hopelessly distraught, because, to use Mr. Crothers's phrase, they have not the "conveniences" for doing their own thinking; a somewhat larger minority jump from one prejudice to another, finding it easier to take refuge in the product of some one else's thinking than to think for themselves. But the majority learn to discriminate, more or less clearly, between what is fact and what is hypothesis, what is known and what is only desired, and graduate from college with a shorter creed than they possessed when they entered, but with a creed composed of well-considered convictions. In short, the average collegian believes very enthusiastically in "Prove all things," and not so enthusiastically in "Hold fast that which is good;" but his following of the first counsel leads him irresistibly, though sometimes insensibly, to the practice of the second.

The parent who reads this article, in forming his estimate of its value, must remember three facts: First, that the preacher, however desirous he may be to meet all sorts and conditions of men, is apt to see in college only the more earnest of purpose; he does not come much in contact with the careless, the indifferent, and the vicious. Second, I am temperamentally inclined to look for the best in my fellow-men, a temperament which I have deliberately cultivated; and we generally see what we look for. Third, I am a firm believer in absolute freedom of inquiry; the liberty of thinking, which some men regard as the peril of America, I regard as its glory. I accept the aphorism that error is dangerless so long as truth is free to combat it. I desire myself to face the facts of life and to be able to give an answer to any one who asks me the reason for the faith that is in me; and I desire to exert what influence I have in the world in support of that sincerity of spirit which leads us to believe, not what is popular, nor what is agreeable, but what is true. If the reader will bear these three facts in mind, he will be able better to estimate the counsel with which I close this article, which he may regard as a personal letter: If your son or daughter desires to know the truth and to follow it as seen whithersoever it may lead, there is for such a one less moral danger in the American college than in the ordinary business and social circles of America, and a promise of great advantage in development of character and equipment for life.

PUBLIC OPINION

THE CENTENNIAL AT RUTGERS

Your issue of July 10, referring to Commencement at Rutgers College, June 23, 1909, states that the College then celebrated its centennial. Permit me to say that the centennial exercises were in commemoration of the erection of Queen's Building, the present oldest building of the College. Rutgers College was founded as Queen's College in 1766 by royal charter, and now for nearly one hundred and forty years has been maintained on its second charter, granted in 1770 by George III, through William Franklin, Governor of the Province of New Jersey. The centennial of the College was therefore celebrated many years ago. The name of the College was changed from Queen's to Rutgers in 1825, as King's College had years before changed its name to Columbia.

Special interest for many reasons is attached to the centennial of Queen's Building. With its erection in 1809 the College moved from another site in New Brunswick to its present more appropriate and adequate location. Under its roof for many years all the College facilities and work were housed; it included chapel, library, and president's residence in addition to all lecture-rooms. Now, a century later, it remains the central building on the campus, in the midst of many added erections, and the center of the College's activities.

It was built by John McComb, architect of the City Hall, New York City, about the same time as that building, and, like it, ranks among the best public buildings of early erection in America. In dignity, proportions, and grace of lines it is probably not surpassed by any early building of any American college.

The reference to lotteries in President Demarest's address, to which you allude, was reference to that method, common in those days among colleges, benevolent institutions, and even churches, as used by Queen's College for the raising of part of the cost of the building's erection, not for original endowment of the College.

GEORGE A. OSBORN,
Librarian of Rutgers College.

THE SITUATION IN TURKEY

Two of our highest officials have recently confessed to me, in a somewhat diplomatic way, that the massacres of 1895 and 1896 were planned and ordered from the Imperial Palace in Constantinople. It is absolutely certain that not only had the late massacres the same source, but that it was the plan that they should occur throughout the whole country—at least the whole of Asiatic Turkey. It has been confessed by the highest authority here that an order was received for a general massacre, and the preparations for it were made. All through the region Koords were ready for it, and Turks, too, and they only waited the signal to begin. Turks have confessed that the plan involved the complete extermination of the Armenians, and some of them say that the Armenian houses were divided among them by lot. They were to kill first, and then the house and its contents were to be theirs. Word comes from all parts of the country that orders for a general massacre had been received, but the opportune dethronement of Abdul-Hamid defeated this fiendish plan except in the Adana district. Ibrahim Pasha, the Marshal of the Fourth Army Corps, sent a warning to the civil authorities through all the region where his military authority extends that they would be held responsible for any disturbance of the peace, and that order was a help in delaying the execution of the order from the capital. It is very evident that a general massacre was imminent, but, thanks to our kind Heavenly Father and the energy of the Young Turks, a large part of the country was spared.

This region, however, is a great sufferer from the Adana disaster. Adana is the center of a large farming district, and there are other industries there, and all call for a great number of laborers. The work which these industries demand is chiefly performed by men from other parts of the country. Great numbers of those who cannot go to America to earn money have been in the habit of going to Adana to earn a little money for their families here. Hundreds of men from this district were at work in the Adana region. In reply to a telegram which we sent inquiring for some of our orphans who had gone there, Mr. Chambers replied that he had no knowledge of the orphans, and he also says that few of the men from abroad are living. Friends here send telegrams in the name of their friends who were there, but there is no response, except in rare instances. So we have all about us hundreds of families who are bereft by this disaster, and who will be dependent upon charity. We often hear that friends in America and England are tired of helping the Armenians; but is there a people on the face of the earth who have suffered as these people have, especially during the reign of this recently dethroned Nero? At any rate, we who are living among them cannot remain indifferent to their needs. Provision must be made for their widows and orphans.

I received a letter yesterday from an Armenian Society which said that they had a telegram which stated that four girls from Adana were being smuggled in to this region—I have since learned that there are eight of these girls—and help was asked in the effort to find and rescue them. Men are being sent out to look quietly for them among the large number of Turkish and Koordish villages in this district. Has this Adana massacre a worse feature than the large abduction of women and girls?

The aim of the Young Turk party is to unite the different races in this country into one compact Osmanli nationality. That is a most laudable and necessary enterprise, but it is one of immense magnitude. There are Turks, Arabs, Koords, Armenians, Greeks, Jews, and other races which have for ages maintained separate existences and a hostile attitude to one another. This has been one of the chief weaknesses of the Turkish Government. The race problem in America will show you some of the difficulties which this problem presents here. Moslem fanaticism does not listen to reason. As one of the means by which their equality is to be shown, the Christians are demanding that military service shall be open to them instead of the annual payment of a military exemption tax, although military service in this country is full of hardship and very poorly paid. The Turks have been much opposed to this plan, but it has been ordered, and it is to be tried. Education and the Gospel are the best solvent of the race problem, and they are being tried, but upon a scale that ought to be greatly enlarged.

HERMAN N. BARNUM.

Harpoot, Turkey.

PROTECTION TO WHAT? Some time ago my wife sent some woolen dresses to our girls who are attending school in America. Wishing to be as economical as possible, for it is hard on a missionary's salary to support children in school in the homeland, my wife made the dresses herself. In making the customs declaration at the post-office, I stated only the cost of the raw material, which was fifteen dollars. A letter from the children received yesterday tells us that they had to pay $10.80 duty. I am sure I do not know what home industry I am thus helping to protect, but I hope those thus protected will give me the proper thanks. It cannot be the "Steel Trust," of which we hear so much, and so I wondered, when I heard of the very high duty I had to pay, whether it was not, after all, the "Steal Trust," of which we hear now and then belonging to the customs service. It seems rather hard that one not engaged in business has to pay such a heavy duty. This seems to be an illustration of what you once remarked in an editorial, that the tariff seems to be against the poor.

A. V. BRYAN.

Port Arthur, Manchuria.

SIR WILLIAM GAIRDNER In response to the wishes of Lady Gairdner and her family, I have undertaken to edit the medical and scientific papers and articles of the late Sir William Tennant Gairdner, and to preface the collection with a biography.

In order to render the work as worthy as possible of the memory of the late Professor, I am desirous of enlisting the sympathy and help of his friends. I venture, therefore, to request through your columns that any one who has in his possession any letters or other literary remains of Sir William Gairdner will be so kind as to communicate with me.

G. A. GIBSON, M.D.

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